

Adult Education for Blacks in Natal/Kwa Zulu :

A Study of Some Aspects, with Particular Reference

to Opportunities for Teachers

By



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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that the whole of this thesis, except where specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own original work and that it has not been submitted for any degree in any other University.

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## PREFACE

Natal is one of the provinces of the Republic of South Africa, and Kwa Zulu is part of Natal. Referring to constitutional development in Kwa Zulu since 1951, Dhlomo in his Doctoral Thesis argues that

"In February 1977 Kwa Zulu reached phase 3 in its Constitutional Development."  
(p. 100).

When a homeland attains this stage of constitutional development an election has to be held to elect members of a Legislative Assembly. Dhlomo notes that "It is also at this stage when a homeland gets its own flag and national anthem." (idem). The position in Kwa Zulu at present, argues Dhlomo, is "That the Department of Education and Culture is empowered to control all education in the homeland except university education."  
(p. 101).

On population distribution in racial groups in Kwa Zulu and Natal, the Buthelezi Commission Report, Volume I (1982) reads :

- "1. The population in the region of Kwa Zulu/Natal is approximately 20 percent of the total population of the Republic of South Africa.
2. The official figures from the 1980 census give the total population as 5722221, of which 3187987 are resident in Kwa Zulu. This latter population, with the exception of a few thousand Black South Africans, is predominantly Zulu.

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3. In the area of Natal the 1980 census figures record 1240669 Black South Africans, 646907 Indian South Africans, 557044 White South Africans and 87553 Coloured South Africans, together with a further 18 persons classified as other." (p. 69).

In Natal "white areas", education for whites is controlled by the Department of Education of the Natal Provincial Administration. For Indians, education is controlled by the Department of Internal Affairs : Division of Indian Education, and for Blacks in this region education is controlled by the Department of Education and Training. The operation of different Departments of Education in Natal/Kwa Zulu has resulted in different forms of discrimination for the different race groups in the region. Education for Blacks in Natal/Kwa Zulu has suffered a variety of limitations resulting in a high rate of illiteracy, overcrowded schools, unqualified and underqualified teachers and a very high pupil drop-out rate. This study is mainly concerned with education for Blacks because it is this section of South African society whose educational problems need greater attention. Educational, political and social inequalities in Natal/Kwa Zulu reflect the kind of society South Africa is, and as a result of this situation a study of some aspects of adult education in Natal/Kwa Zulu is justified. In Natal/Kwa Zulu there are limited opportunities for formal schooling among Black people, limited opportunities for further education, and widespread illiteracy. All this



justifies a study to investigate opportunities for adult education in the region.

Expansion of formal education would not solve the problem even if necessary finances were available. A large mass would still be left unattended. Wandira (1977) argues that

"The formal school systems of America, Western Europe, Russia and Japan differ markedly from the emerging school systems of Africa in the extent to which they can reach the vast majority of the school-going populations of their country." (p. 64).

He further argues that "These systems face problems arising from massification of education." (p. 64).

The problems of African educational systems, in Natal/Kwa Zulu as well as in South African Black education are different in that school remains a minority institution.

In 1981 The Human Sciences Research Council as well as the Buthelezi Commission pinpointed awareness on the part of South African educationists of how an attempt can be made to solve Black educational problems not only through the formal system but also through non-formal education. The need to study and improve adult education in Kwa Zulu emerged as clearly necessary. Among the topics the writer will consider in this study are the different legislations for the provision of education in the Republic of South Africa. The writer

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will examine education as a social institution, the nature and development of adult education, and will critically analyse certain opportunities for adult Blacks to engage in education of both a formal and non-formal nature. A review of opportunities for the upgrading of teachers as well as the role of teachers' societies and professional organisations in teachers' professional development will be examined.

The writer was privileged to undertake a study tour to Britain to observe the practices and policies for adult education and these practices will be reviewed. The writer had the opportunity of meeting experts and he visited different centres and institutions of adult education observing different problems related to adult education in Britain.

#### METHOD OF RESEARCH

Material for this dissertation was obtained through library study i.e. analysing material and books. Interviews were also held with officials of different departments. A brief questionnaire was administered to students doing degree work with the assistance of the South African Council of Higher Education. A direct observation of adult education was made in Britain as well as in this country. The British Council study tour made it possible for the writer to make a comparative analysis of adult education.

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The writer is himself personally involved in adult education as his occupation involves visiting adult education centres and discussing the problems with adult tutors and adult students, themselves. The classes in these adult education centres range from basic literacy classes up to matriculation standard. These are students who are either drop-outs or did not have the opportunity of going to school formally. The writer is also involved with teachers whose academic qualifications are below matriculation and who have to upgrade themselves to the matriculation level.

The writer therefore has an intimate association with the planning and the general execution of general adult education as well as teacher upgrading programmes in Kwa Zulu, and this association formed the basis for a critical analysis of the situation with a view to making recommendations.

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## CHAPTER I : THE DEMAND FOR ADULT EDUCATION IN NATAL/KWA ZULU

### 1. EDUCATION AS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION

In this chapter a review of education as a social institution in Natal/Kwa Zulu, with specific reference to the needs of Black people, will be undertaken. Kwa Zulu is characterised by all forms of underdevelopment and the system of education in this region, particularly since 1948, has resulted in a variety of backlogs. Kwa Zulu therefore has a number of problems and as a result of this, particular demands and needs become apparent. In a situation of this nature, the possibility emerges that adult education as a special service may partially solve some of the problems. One of the concerns of this dissertation as a whole is an examination of that possibility.

Before considering some different views on education, the writer will analyse the concept culture, because education takes place in a cultural context.

McGee (1973) cites Kluckhohn who defines culture as :

"an historically derived system of explicit and implicit designs for living which tend to be shared by all or specifically designated members of a group or society."  
(p. 19)

Culture, argues McGee, "refers to ways of behaving or doing things, patters of behaviour for the members of a society". (idem.).

Herskovits (1960) writes as follows : "Culture is the man-made part of the environment." (p. 305).  
He asserts that

"There is general agreement that culture is learned and that it is manifested in institutions, thought patterns and material objects." (idem).

Because culture is learned, it may be argued that education which implies learning, and culture are closely linked.

Musgrave (1965) echoes the same sentiments as Herskovits and writes :

"The patterns of behaviour that a society passes on to its new recruits are referred to as culture." (p. 33),

He points out that "In primitive society the transmission of the culture was a major part of education". (idem). In such transmission the family played a key

role. That the nuclear family can teach a child is an indication that the family is a social institution where learning takes place.

Musgrave (op.cit.) asserts that

"The nuclear family can teach a child when to shake hands or how to eat a meal but, it cannot easily teach the child how to read or do equations, particularly if both parents go out to earn a living."  
(p. 33).

In complex societies, the school emerges as one of the foremost agencies which provides education.

Berger and Berger (1979) argue that

"It is possible to define education very broadly as all forms of socialization that occur after primary socialization has been completed."  
(p. 191).

They further argue that to say that education is an institution is not enough.

"One must ask further what kind of institution it is and how it relates to other institutions in society."  
(p. 193).

One important area to observe is that formal education is today a widespread institution particularly in the



Western world. Whatever its characteristics in a particular society, it has become an institution of paramount importance all over the world.

In order to facilitate education, language, another social institution, is made use of. Education depends on language. Berger and Berger (op.cit.) declare that

"Language is very probably the fundamental institution of society as well as being the first institution encountered by the individual biographically." (p. 81).

The same writers assert that

"The state, the economy and the educational system, whatever else they may be depend upon language." (idem).

Language and education are both social institutions. They both answer to the basic characteristics of an institution which are objectivity, coerciveness, moral authority and historicity.

Writing on education as an institution Luthuli (1980) points out that

"In the case of the Zulu people their education which prior to the contact period was only informal as a result of the static nature of their culture, was drastically changed by the Western impact on their traditional culture." (p. 165).

Education as an aspect of culture and as a social institution can be informal as was the case in traditional Zulu Culture, formal as in the case of school-going children and also non-formal as will be explained later in this chapter.

Arguing on a philosophy of education for Blacks in South Africa Mphahlele writes as follows :

"Blacks have been educated to live not for themselves but for the other man." (P. 11).

The impact of Western civilisation and all that goes with it, Christianity and technological advancement have according to Mphahlele, destroyed the culture and traditions of Black people. There was, he observes, rapid social change caused by the impact of Western culture. The education the Black man received was not rooted in his culture but in the culture of the "other man".

Mphahlele asserts that

"We can thus evolve a philosophy of education only when we come to terms with our history as a conquered people and our aspirations for freedom." (P. 12).

Mphahlele implies that Blacks need to rediscover themselves and also to evolve a philosophy of education.

It is of interest to note that the contemporary activities of the National Cultural Liberation movement known as Inkatha are in fact directed towards establishing a philosophy of education for Blacks. Evolving a philosophy of education would presumably imply a demand for adult education. Because Blacks have not themselves defined what they need in education, a study by them would surely lead to awareness of areas of importance and understanding the meaning of adult education, which involves much more than part-time school education for grown-ups.

## 2. VARIETIES OF EDUCATION

As an institution in society, education can operate in different forms : informally, on a formal basis and non-formally. Coombs (1973) argues that

"One of the spurs to widespread interest in non-formal education in recent years has been the growing recognition that education can no longer be viewed as a time-bound, place-bound process, confined to schools and measured by years of exposure." (p. 9).

Education embraces much more than conventional academic skills and subject matter. It includes a variety of other activities like the acquisition of occupational household skills and the development of aesthetic appreciation. Education also involves the formation of attitudes, values and aspirations and the assimilatic

of knowledge of different types. Education by its very nature is a continuing process starting from earliest infancy and continuing through adulthood.

The process of development entails a variety of methods and sources of learning. These opportunities for learning may be grouped into three categories, as already indicated, though there is overlap and a high degree of interaction between them, according to Coombs (1974), particular factors distinguish the three categories of education. For example,

"Informal education is the truly lifelong process whereby every person acquires and accumulates the following : knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to the environment at work; at home; at play; from the example and attitudes of family and friends, from travel, reading newspapers and books ; or by listening to the radio or viewing films or television." (p. 8).

Some of the characteristics of informal education are that it is unorganised and often unsystematic and yet it accounts for much of any person's total lifetime learning. Even a highly schooled person's experiences are based on informal education.

Formal education on the other hand, as Morphet and Millar (1981) point out is the

"hierarchically structured chronologically graded education system running from primary school through to the university." (p. 1).

Formal education includes in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialised programmes and institutions for full time technical and professional training.

The Internationally accepted definition of the term non-formal education is taken from Coombs (1974) :

"Any organised, systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults as well as children." (p. 8).

Thus defined, argues Coombs,

"Non-formal education includes for example, agricultural extension and farmer training programmes, adult literacy programmes, occupational skill training given outside the formal system." (idem).

Coombs points out that youth clubs with substantial educational purposes and various community programmes of instruction in health, nutrition, family planning, co-operatives and other ventures, all fall under the category of non-formal education. There are similarities and differences between formal and non-formal education. These are organised to improve upon the informal learning process, in other words to promote and facilitate certain valued types of learning such as reading and writing.

There is growing agreement that nations should strive to evolve lifelong learning systems designed to provide every individual with a flexible and diversified range of useful learning options throughout life. Coombs (op.cit.), points out that

"Any such system would have to synthesize many elements of informal, formal and non-formal education .. In fact every country, even the poorest, already has a substantial start on such a system." (p. 9).

There is need to observe different educational activities as potential components of a coherent and flexible overall learning system that can be steadily strengthened. The system may be diversified and linked more closely to the needs and processes of national development, making use of all available resources.

In examining the concept education The Report of the Main Committee of the Human Sciences Research Council. Investigation into Education (1981) makes the following observation :

"In recent years the demand for education has been universally regarded as self evident, the view being that education is the means and provides access to development, economic progress, improving the standards of living establishing one's cultural identity...". (p. 19).

The Report adds that in addition, there has to be harmonization between education and the social needs

of a particular country. Further, it is pointed out that

"There is strong evidence to suggest that inadequate harmonization in industrialised countries has led to large scale unemployment among school leavers, serious financial problems in the provision of education and highly unrealistic demands for university education." (idem).

The present writer feels that harmonization between education and a country's economy is central if education is to contribute towards a particular country's development, provided that the education system does not merely become a means for preparing learners for employment.

In recent times, argues the Report of the main committee of the H.S.R.C. (1981, op.cit.)

"It is increasingly maintained that the provision of formal schooling in the traditional closed patterns in fact contributes to the slowing down of economic emancipation and political development." (p. 20).

This assertion emphasises the importance of a need for a close relationship between education and the needs of a country's economy.

It can thus be concluded that education as a concept can take different forms, it can be informal, formal and non-formal. In order that formal and non-formal education



should benefit a particular country, it seems necessary that both formal and non-formal education should be based on the needs of the country. It should however be noted that an overemphasis on the economic needs of a country may also be dangerous as this may narrow the educational system at the expense of a broad-based education intended to equip pupils with the demands of an ever-changing society.

Husen raises important points about education. Up to the middle of this century, he writes (1974),

"Higher education was considered a prerogative of the higher social classes. Educated ability was regarded as an investment that could promote the growth of national manufacturers." (p. 78).

Economists did not study the role of education in economic growth until later. Husen asserts that

"In recent years since 1945 education has come to be regarded as a dynamic factor of the first rank." (p. 79).

It is observable that people with a poor background of general education are not capable of assimilating the advanced vocational training needed in the contemporary world, and they are often unable to be retrained. Husen (1974) refers to Robert Hutchins who has defined education "As an activity whereby human beings learn to become more intelligent." (p. 79). It is quite legitimate

argues Husen, "To say that life in the society of the economically developed countries has come to be one long continuation school." (p. 82). We may conclude therefore that the concept education has in recent years extended its meaning to encompass a far broader area than was the case previously. Contemporary trends in education have brought about a need for continuing education and retraining in all professions and at all levels.

### 3. EDUCATION BEYOND THE SCHOOL

The writer will now examine the extended meaning of education in more detail. Coles (1977) argues that "Modern times require that people be enabled to make their fullest contribution to life." (p. 4). This should occur irrespective of their circumstances, mode of living or level of education. It is surely essential that people must be given both vocational skills and the chances of understanding the society and the total environment in which they are living.

Coles (op.cit.) cites Harbison who argues that

"The wealth of a country is dependent upon more than its natural resources and material capital, it is determined in significant degree by the knowledge, skills and motivation of its people". (p. 5).

This indicates clearly that in order to exploit the material resources of a country and in order to develop the skills of the people, education should be available

to all the members of the community. Further, education should not be terminal but should be experienced throughout life. Coles (1977) proposes that

"Adult education is the process whereby persons who no longer attend (or did not attend) school on a regular and full-time basis undertake sequential and organised activities with a conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding or skills, appreciation and attitudes or for the purpose of identifying and solving personal or community problems." (p. 15).

He cites Betleson who has refined the definition of adult education in order to take greater account of informal education as follows :

"Adult education is any learning experience designed for adults irrespective of content, level and methods used". (p.15).

Adult education as a concept of educational provision embraces the idea of non-formal educational programmes, though typically without providing certificates. Much of the early provision was compensatory in character.

Morphet and Millar (1981) argue that

"In recent use the concept still carries a strong compensatory emphasis though its more recent development has stressed that it may be formal or non-formal." (p. 2).

The definition cited by Morphet and Millar (op.cit. was adopted at a Unesco Conference in Nairobi in 1976. The definition shows how widely the term is now interpreted :

"The term adult education denotes the entire body of organised educational process, whatever the content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, college and universities as well as in apprenticeship whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualification or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in the twofold perspective or full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development." (p. 3).

The above very general definition is likely to lead to adult education being accorded a low status without clear goals and strategies. Echoing this view, Morphet and Millar (1981) argue that

"Adult education is in some cases treated as second best. However the strength of the concept lies in its compensatory character and its non-formal flexibility." (p. 3).

Education beyond the school can take various forms, as will now be indicated.

### 3.1 Continuing Education

Many people tend to equate education with schooling and in the case of those who take some

form of further education, with life at college or university.

Ingram (1977) says

"Thus in everyday conversation the question is often asked 'where were you educated?' and the answer given 'at such and such a school or college?'" (p. 5).

The implication of this institutionalised attitude to education is that education is restricted to a particular phase in life, namely the period of childhood and youth and identified with specific institutionalised provision for this age range in school, college and university. Confining education in this way has several undesirable consequences. Ingram (op.cit.) points out that

"Though schools are part of society, they nevertheless become in many ways detached from it and education which is restricted to the school years tends to become dissociated from life". (p. 6).

The conclusion would be that the value of educational activities that take place before and after the period of schooling is often underestimated and the continuity of education as a lifelong activity seriously affected. Continuing education is the result of efforts to formalise and systematise the practices and goals of both non-formal and adult education.

Continuing education includes the diverse characteristics of adult education. The concept focusses on the central function of the provision of adult education. Continuing education makes it possible for adults who missed out to continue their education beyond the stage reached at school. Continuing education relates directly to an illiterate adult, as it does to the person who has attained a standard of post graduate education. Even adults attending literacy classes are regarded as being involved in continuing education. Continuing education enables the particular students to continue in the directions which they consider relevant. They can choose whether they will do so formally or non-formally. They can also choose whether they can study while they maintain their commitments as adults. Continuing education, therefore, is and can be undergone by people whilst in full time employment.

### 3.2 Lifelong Education

A system based on the concept "lifelong education" provides an integrated network of educational opportunities which are available and relevant to the full range of developmental stages through which an individual passes. Parts of the system are work-related while others provide for personal growth. From the individuals point, lifelong learning emphasizes the fact that a person does not conclude his learning after a period of

initial education. His learning needs continue throughout his life, and for him to reach and fulfil his potential both personally and in society it is necessary for him to be able to discover and use a broad range of educational opportunities. Lifelong learning is a long-term goal of the system of education. It is the full development of the system of continuing education. It also incorporates the relationships between learning, work and leisure that is initiated by continuing education.

### 3.3 Recurrent Education

One area of influence of the non-formal on the formal education system is "recurrent education" - or the distribution of education over the lifespan of the individual in a recurring way i.e. in alternation with other activities, principally with work. Fordham (1979) argues that

"Non formal education has begun to demonstrate a need to redistribute educational opportunity overtime, to move away from an end-on model of education to one where education is lifelong and recurrent." (p. 9).

The difference between recurrent and lifelong education can be observed from the following comment on recurrent education by Furtes (1977) :



"This approach emphasizes the distribution of education on a regular and successive basis through the person's entire working life, in the form of intensive study separated by periods of work." p. 47).

It may therefore be surmised that recurrent education is normally job-related. On the other hand, continuing education relates as directly to the adult who has received no education at all as it does to the person who has attained a standard of post graduate education. The present writer suggests that continuing education may not necessarily be job-related, even an illiterate person is involved in continuing education when engaging in a literacy programme. Continuing education could be regarded as a process of liberation. Modern times seem to require that provision should move towards continuing and recurrent education. This makes it possible for the whole of an education system to respond effectively to needs.

A direction towards recurrent education requires a convergence of formal schools and non-formal agencies, especially those concerned with adult education to a point where as Fordham (1979) declares, "We come to think of education as more of an undivided but certainly diversified whole." (p.10). Formal and non-formal education should become complementary to each other. It seems desirable that the various

forms of education, informal, formal and non-formal are to be catered for if a system of education is to be effective. Education beyond the school comprising of continuing education, lifelong education, recurrent education as well as other forms of adult and post-school education, should find a place in the education system if a country intends to provide education for everybody, young and old.

#### 4. EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA : SOME UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES

Education in South Africa is separately legislated and administered for different population groups. The legislation, however, tends to reflect certain common underlying principles. The writer will draw attention to these as part of the background to contemporary demand for adult education.

##### 4.1 Christian Character

Education is primarily concerned with the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake. The acquisition of knowledge is however not the ultimate purpose and function of education. There are other qualities which are required in developing a human being.

Berger and Berger (1979) argue that

"Education inculcates morality by instilling a conscience in the individual which in turn will

discipline him in accordance with the moral rules of society. (p. 202).

In any society it seems that there needs to be some philosophy of life in the community which will contribute to moral formation among the young. Berg and Berger (1979) further argue that

"Education is supposed to transmit values, or as many parents put it when asked what they expect of the schools which their children attend, 'to teach the children the difference between right and wrong.'"

Education is finally supposed to form character, to develop certain socially desirable types of human beings. We may therefore say that education is responsible for the moral formation of the individual and in this respect Christianity makes a big contribution in many Western societies. In almost all legislation for education in South Africa Christianity is the norm. To emphasize the Christian character of education, the National Education Policy Act No. 39 of 1967 reads :

"The education in schools maintained, managed and controlled by a department of state, shall have a Christian character, but that the religious conviction of the parents and pupils shall be respected in regard to religious instruction and religious ceremonies.".

Though the Christian character is emphasised, there is room for non-Christian children. In the education

system, their religions are to be respected. The provisions of Act 39 of 1967 (for Whites) find expression in other legislation for education, too.

#### 4.2 National Character

In his policy speech (1978/1979) the Minister of Education and Culture of Kwa-Zulu said :

"Education is indeed the cornerstone of national development. Consequently any educational system needs to reflect the goals and aspirations of the nation for which the system has been devised."

The National Education Policy Act for Whites in South Africa (1967) reads : "Education in schools ... shall have a broad national character.". Education in terms of the Act has to develop the child's love of his fatherland, language and cultural heritage. Nationhood in Kwa Zulu schools, too, is fostered through the Inkatha syllabus. One of the aims of the Inkatha syllabus is to acquaint pupils with the role and significance of the National Cultural Liberation movement and to suggest that a successful nation must be well organized to equip the youth with such knowledge and skills as will enable them to develop a keen sense of nationhood.

#### 4.3 Compulsory Education

For Whites, Coloureds and Indians in South Africa education is compulsory. For Blacks The Education

and Training Act No. 90 of 1979 merely says that

"It shall be the aim and objective, with the co-operation of the parents, to introduce compulsory school attendance free tuition in all areas.".

In other words compulsory education is not yet in force in Black education except in a few areas of the Transvaal and the Free State where the Minister concerned indicated that compulsory education would start in 1981. It is still far-fetched to think in terms of compulsory education in Black society because even without compulsory education Black schools are extremely overcrowded. Every year numbers of students are turned away from schools because of lack of classroom accommodation.

#### 4.4 Free Education

Education (including books and stationery) is provided free of charge in schools for all racial groups except for Blacks. While education is not free for Black children, it is clear that Black development will remain at a disadvantage. One of the reasons for the high drop-out rate in Black education is the fact that parents cannot always afford to pay for the education of their children. (Figures of the drop-out rate will be discussed later in this work). The burden of educating children becomes heavier when students reach

secondary and high school stages.

Ellis (1980) argues that

"Free education for all must be guaranteed in all respects in order that no person will be denied basic education." (p. 9).

He goes on to say that

"Complete primary education would equip everybody with the basic skills to operate as a full human being." (idem).

One of the functions of free and compulsory education is to provide basic literacy, oracy and numeracy for all citizens of a country.

#### 4.5 Differentiated Education

In the provision of education, the ability, aptitude and interests of the pupil as well as the training needs of a country should presumably be taken into account. Very insignificant attempts are made to cater for the aptitude, ability and interests of the child in Black education. Overcrowded schools cannot cater effectively. The training needs of the country cannot be met by Black educational facilities as there are too few technical commercial and vocational schools. Black education is not geared towards training for specialised skills and as such a lot of talent lies

wasted. The country goes to the extent of importing skilled workers from overseas instead of using its own human potential. The Natal Mercury of Monday September 21, 1980 had a leading article on "Immigrant boom for South Africa". The article said

"Britons desperate to escape unemployment and recession are flocking to South Africa in numbers unprecedented since World War II."

The article further cited the head of information at the South African Embassy who said that the booming economy meant there were jobs with top pay that could not be filled by South Africans. The following was the B.B.C. Comment :

"The sadness of the situation is that if the 18 million blacks in South Africa had had the same educational opportunities as the 4 000 000 Whites there would be no shortage of skilled people."

This publicity was a clear indication that opportunities for education and training in South Africa are characterised by discrimination.

Many problems militate against differentiated education for Blacks, as Behr (1980) argues, referring to an address by the Minister of Education and Culture in Kwa Zulu. The Minister pointed out that the majority of pupils were in the lower primary



schools, and most of them never progressed beyond this level of education. His department (the Minister's) was committed to the broadening of the apex of the educational pyramid by providing more facilities for secondary school education. The Minister stated :

"It is a well known fact that if we are to develop a reservoir of skilled labour in this region, we have to produce more secondary school graduates since it is from their ranks that skilled labourers are recruited.".

Teachers' qualifications are an additional problem in Kwa Zulu. Of the 15 500 teachers employed in the schools of Kwa Zulu about 2 000 are unqualified in the sense of not being trained as teachers; many thousands more are academically underqualified. It is therefore most unlikely for an education system which operates under such conditions to manage to produce skilled people in the various professions.

#### 4.6 State and Education

The education system is but one independent social structure amongst many others in any society such as political parties, churches, trade unions and clubs Vos (1980) argues that

"It is, interalia, the function of the education system to develop and make available to the community, the diverse skills and talents needed for its harmonious development?" (p.2).

Education in the broadest sense needs to go beyond the formal school system which is chronologically graded, terminating at certain stages. The type of education which develops and makes available to the community the diverse skills and talents needed for development is the type of education which makes provision for adult education. In South Africa, this is essential particularly for the Blacks.

#### 4.7 Education for Employment

Berger and Berger say

"Education is concerned with the transmission of knowledge that will have practical use for life." (p. 203).

Thus the functions of education are often viewed as relating to individual careers in life.

Clarence (1981) points out that

"Time and again we hear from Government ministers, industry leaders and economists of the present severe shortage of well-trained and skilled personnel." (p. 7).

The employment needs in any society cover a very wide area ranging from those of professionally

qualified doctors, teachers and engineers, to those of unskilled persons. With such demands, argues Clarence,

"It may at first sight appear a comparatively simple matter to categorise pupils - test their likes and dislikes, their abilities and weaknesses and then train them for their future careers."

Such an approach, argues Clarence,

"has been found to be lacking, and at best could only be expected to produce a product with a certain knowledge of facts but with no real ability to adapt to the changing demands of adult life." (idem).

It seems reasonable that pupils should be trained with as broad a base as possible, with the ability to think for themselves and to be flexible. It is a fact that though education is partly a preparation for employment, the curriculum should cover as broad an area as possible before specialization.

Having examined some of the broad principles underlying education in South Africa, as reflected in the legislation, the writer now proceeds to focus attention on the particular situation in Kwa Zulu. A specific direction in education is favoured through the policy of Inkatha, which will now be discussed.

## 5. AN EXAMPLE OF DIRECTION IN EDUCATION : INKATHA

The writer now proceeds to consider the situation of education in Kwa Zulu with reference to the Inkatha movement. The Inkatha syllabus for schools is an important influence here. The general aims of the Inkatha syllabus are:

- "(1) To equip youth with such knowledge and skills as will enable them to develop a keen sense of nationhood and service to both nation and country.
- (2) To encourage pupils to work and to understand that a strong national culture is an essential factor in the building of a nation and
- (3) To develop the pupils' concept of themselves as individuals who are pillars of a nation, hence necessity for them to dedicate themselves to the service of the nation and country". (p. 2)

The Inkatha syllabus has a well defined philosophy of education which to a very large extent responds to the sentiments expressed by Mphahlele when he says

"We Blacks need first to confine our humanism to those who are oppressed, reinforce our moral strength, conserve energy, from which position we can reach out with dignity on our own." (p. 30).

Inkatha's programme for the youth answers to the above aspirations by Mphahlele. One of the features of Inkatha is to educate the youth so that whilst young, they are

introduced into programmes of nation building. In order to achieve this, the Inkatha syllabus was introduced to all Kwa Zulu schools. The syllabus for Primary and Secondary/High schools (1978) declares

"The practical step of introducing this subject in schools is a basic step to train youth for nationhood, service, devotion and commitment." (p. 1).

The Inkatha school syllabus is allocated at least two periods per week in the timetable. All teachers are responsible for teaching it. Youth brigades are set up to motivate the ideas and philosophy of Inkatha, in which a study of the Kwa Zulu constitution, presidential addresses, history of the Zulu people and related topics are taught.

In his Master's thesis on the metabletic aims of education for the Zulu, Luthuli notes underlying key points of change and shows that in a developing society people look towards education to assist in defining a philosophy of life. "Education", he concludes, "is not for children but for society." (p. 270). The assertion that education is for society shows that education is not supposed to be terminal and school-based, but that it should be lifelong and continuing. The Inkatha syllabus further declares that "The task of nation building and the creation of national unity is one great task confronting any education system." (p. 11). It concludes by saying that "The greatest hope in any country thus lies

with the teachers whose duty it is to mould the young towards this goal."(idem). The syllabus is directed at school children with the long term objective of transforming Zulu society and thus providing education in its broadest sense. The writer concludes that Inkatha's fundamental objective is the creation of political awareness among the young and old in the struggle for political freedom. It is also a philosophy directed to fostering unity between the different ethnic groups in South Africa

Paulo Freire (1972) says

"It is in the interest of the oppressor to weaken the oppressed still further, to isolate them, to create and deepen rifts among them." (p. 137).

It is sometimes alleged that this is happening in South Africa even within the Black people and it seems that Inkatha is attempting to salvage this situation by conscientizing Blacks towards some form of political awareness and adult education. Citing another education system which seems to echo Inkatha's sentiments, Ellis (1981) comments on Kenya's post-colonial education and writes

"After independence in 1963 the Ominde Commission was appointed to investigate education resources and advised the government on the formation and implementation of national policies for education." (p.

Ellis argues

"This commission in its realization that independence signified the birth of a nation and that the task ahead was one of uniting different racial and ethnic groups and tribes, embraced the notion of Marambee, literally translated as pulling together." (p. 6).

The Commission report stated that education must "foster nationhood and promote national unity." (p. 6). This is basically the far-sighted objective of Inkatha, i.e. national unity.

#### 6. A HISTORY OF EDUCATION FOR BLACKS IN SOUTH AFRICA

A careful analysis of government policy towards African education before the coming of the present government into power, write Mugomba and Nyaggah (1977),

"reveals a relatively progressive education policy similar in many respects to the policy followed by the British in their other African countries." (p. 60).

Mugomba and Nyaggah point out that

"It would be naive for any African to say that this education system was ideal for the Blacks. Nevertheless it had the potential for the kind of improvement that occurred elsewhere in Africa after World War II." (idem).

An important aspect of the pre-1948 African education was that missionaries of various denominations were important in the system until most of their schools



were taken over by centralized control in the mid 1950's. Mugomba and Nyaggah (1977, op.cit.) argue that,

"In the pre-1948 period unanswered questions remained about the education policy towards Blacks .. yet the unanswered questions lingered on until the coming of the Nationalist government." (p. 62).

These comments suggest that Black education during the period concerned was decentralised and as Mugomba and Nyaggah point out, the Cape and Natal had a more liberal system of education than that pertaining in other areas. On the other hand the same writers declare

"The post-1948 education has been part of an overall, well conceived doctrinaire policy of systematically maintaining white hegemony over the Blacks so that the former may perpetually exploit the latter." (p. 59).

The Bantu Education Act, No. 47 of 1953, endorsed the White hegemony to which Mugomba and Nyaggah refer

An overview of the history of education for Blacks since about 1948 will now be given, with a view to show how tremendous backlogs (resulting in the need for adult education) have occurred. During the period of the Second World War and immediately thereafter, South Africa experienced a tremendous industrial upsurge.

Behr and Macmillan (1971) say

"This brought about a great degree of urbanization, and resulted in changes in the economic and social life of all its people." (p. 396).

The future of Blacks became a serious concern of the government. It was argued, points out Behr and Macmillan (1971)

"whether Blacks were to be part of a common integrated Westernized society or whether they were to be segregated." (idem).

In 1948 the National government was elected and immediately implemented its policy of Separate Development : Africans were not to be part of a common integrated Westernized society. It should however be noted that separate education had at least some of its roots in a previous government. The political arrangement affected all aspects of South Africa's social life and Natal was no exception to this situation. Education for Blacks of South Africa was extremely affected by these new developments.

Behr (1978) notes that

"In 1949, soon after the newly elected National Government under Dr. D.F. Malan took office, it set up a commission (under the chairmanship of Dr. W.W.M. Eiselen) with very significant terms of reference." (p. 165).

The Commission had to go into the whole question of Blac

education. In 1951 this Commission brought out a report which proved to be the blueprint for "Bantu Education" in the next few decades. The new approach heralded by the Commission was already indicated in the first term of reference of the Commission as formulated by Dr. H.F. Verwoerd, then Minister of Native Affairs. Malherbe (1977) quotes Verwoerd as having said that Black education should involve

"The formulation of the principles and aims of education for natives as an independent race in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitudes and their needs under ever changing social conditions are taken into consideration." (p. 545).

Schools and their organization thus became the first target for the government. From the quotation it is obvious Dr. Verwoerd felt that "Native education" should differ significantly from the education of other race groups. The whole scheme involved nothing other than lowering the standards in Black education.

Mugomba and Nyaggah (1977) assert that

"The present second class education for Blacks is a result of a planned policy aimed at systematically denying Africans educational opportunities equal to those of whites." (p. 60).

There is widespread agreement that the standards of Black education were lowered. Further argue Mugomba and Nyaggah,

"The larger implications of this policy are the maintenance of the baaskap policy of white domination and continuation of exploitation of the Africans, politically and economically." (idem).

Bantu Education" was supposed, say Behr and Macmillan (1971)

"To have a separate existence, just as for example, French education and Chinese Education." (p. 397).

This was very unfortunate on the part of the government because instead of stressing those features which are common to all South Africans, it stressed the differences.

The Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953 gave expression to the main ideas embodied in the Eiselen Report. With the passage of this Act, Dr. Verwoerd had become head of the government department in control of Bantu Education. In Malherbe (1977) Dr. Verwoerd is quoted as saying,

"It is the policy of my department that Bantu Education should have its roots entirely in the native areas ... There Bantu education must be able to give itself complete expression and there it will have to perform its real service. There is no place for him (the African) in the European Community above the level of certain forms of labour. With his own community all doors are open." (p. 546).

Malherbe, says Verwoerd, did not seem to realise, or chose to ignore that at that time only about 37% of the Bantu lived in the so-called homelands. The other 63% worked in the white areas to earn a living. In the industrialized areas they felt frustrated in functioning because they could not acquire quickly enough the white man's education and know-how. Black people were also frustrated because only certain forms of labour were open to them in the white man's area. To entrench residential segregation the government applied the Group Areas Act of 1950 which provided the machinery and criteria for defining those areas in which each racial group could legally live. The basic aim of all these declarations was that the Black child was to be taught that he was a foreigner in white South Africa. Black education would teach Africans from childhood that equality with Europeans was not for him and in fact from childhood it seemed that the African should know that he was inferior to a white person. The idea that an African was inferior to a white was implied in the Bantu Education Policy. Mugomba and Nyaggah (op. cit.) write that the Act

"prescribed the objectives for a distinctly inferior education for Blacks; aimed at giving them what the Nationalist government considered an adequate education useful for Blacks in their own community." (p. 65).

Among the changes resulting from the Education Act No. 47 of 1953 were :

6.1

**Centralisation of Control**

The control of the education of the African passed from the provinces to the central government. This centralization was intended to exercise effective control in every aspect of education. No province could apply a system of education different from the other provinces. A division of Bantu Education was set up with the then Department of Native Affairs. Murphy in his Doctoral Thesis on Bantu Education argues as follows :

"Centralised administration with powerful control vested in the Minister of Native Affairs was achieved immediately after the passage of the Bantu Education Act. In 1958 a separate Department of Bantu Education, headed by a Minister, was created." (p. 119).

This resulted in a rigid centralization of the Bantu Education Policy with enormous powers vested in the Minister, and brought about an obvious shift from the previous more liberal policy. After the declaration of the Bantu Education Act of 1953, the number of Bantu pupils enrolled increased considerably, particularly during the next two decades. The money made available by the state, however, did not keep pace in real terms with this tremendous increase.

## 6.2 The Elimination of Mission Schools

At the local level, the biggest change came about in the shift of control from the churches to the local communities. The institutions that were most seriously affected were the teacher training institutions, the great majority of which had been conducted by missions and staffed by whites. The government decided that the training of all teachers for government and government-aided schools should in future be conducted in state training institutions. The elimination of mission control was also intended, because as Malherbe (1977) points out,

"Missionary influence was regarded by the Nationalist Government as nothing less than an instrument in the hands of liberalism." (p. 546)

As mission schools were regarded as places for liberal thought, they were regarded with disfavour by the government and discouraged.

## 6.3 Decline in the Quality of Teaching

Education for Blacks and particularly teacher training, lost its most competent and dedicated white teachers and for the next decade the quality of education deteriorated considerably as can be seen in the number of pupils who had to be handled by teachers in the classroom. In 1953, declares Malherbe



"The pupil/teacher ratio was 1:40. By 1960 it had grown to 1:50 and in 1974 it had deteriorated in some homelands to 1:60." (p. 551).

The reason for the above was that some of the mission training colleges were closed and the remaining ones did not produce enough teachers. The enrolment in schools increased and yet there were not enough school buildings. The result of this was that schools became cramped.

By 1974, the mission schools which had at one time been the mainstay of Black education had been reduced to taking care of about 63 000 pupils i.e. 1,8% of the Black pupils in the Republic. Thus, the intention of the government of curtailing the influence of the mission schools was achieved. If the government had continued to subsidize mission schools and had continued to build new schools and additional Teacher Training Colleges, the present overcrowding might possibly have been eliminated to some extent. Most of the then mission schools and training colleges eventually ceased to function as the government no longer subsidized them. The schools which were built by the central department could not cope with the needs of the communities they had to serve.

In 1974, declares Malherbe,

"Of the 63 000 (African) Teachers, only a little more than 1% had a university degree plus a professional qualification (p. 550).

Nearly 20% had no professional qualification at all and an academic background ranging from Standard Six to Matriculation. With these poor qualifications the African teachers were expected to cope with 50 and 60 pupils on the average per class. The seriousness of the situation as in 1978 is reflected in the following table.

TABLE 1 : QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS (1978)  
IN SOUTH AFRICA

	WHITE		COLOURED		ASIAN		BLACK	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Qualifications in addition to Teaching Certificate								
DEGREE	4571	34,33	995	4,50	1465	20,51	1131	2,45
STD 10	8745	65,67	7563	34,22	4685	66,16	8601	16,09
STD 8	-	-	13337	60,34	944	13,33	33628	62,90
STD 6	-	-	209	0,94	-	-	9921	18,56
TOTAL :	13314	100,00	22104	100,00	7081	100,00	53461	100,00

(Source : H.S.R.C. REPORT, 1981, p. 62)

The above table shows teachers' qualifications of the different race groups in South Africa. With Whites all teachers have matriculation as their

basic qualification. On the other hand the average academic qualification for Black teachers is Standard Eight.

#### 6.4 The 1956 Syllabuses, and Language Medium

A new syllabus for the lower primary course was published towards the end of 1954. It provided that instruction should be given through the medium of the mother tongue, both English and Afrikaans being taught as subjects. There was general disquiet over the early introduction of both official languages.

Horrell, (1968) notes that the Transkeian Commission pointed out that as the same teacher normally taught English as well as Afrikaans to pupils

"the children tended to associate both these foreign languages with the same person and this caused confusion." (p. 59).

At secondary school level it was decided that half the subjects that had previously been taught through an African language must be taught through the media of English and Afrikaans. Exemptions might be granted if teachers were unable to do this. The use of the mother tongue as a medium throughout the primary school, and at secondary school level the 50-50 division of subjects in

terms of English and Afrikaans was strongly unacceptable to parents.

Horrell (1968) says that in accordance with the Cingo Commission the Transkeian government decided in 1964 that in Standard Three English or Afrikaans as selected by parents, should gradually be substituted for Xhosa as the medium of instruction. The Chief Minister had said

"The decision did not mean that the people despised their mother tongue or disagreed with the principle that a child is best taught through its home language. It had been made simply because our own language was underdeveloped and had not reached the stage when it could be used in all respects to put across the ideas found in the Western World. We have not the vocabulary and the terminology. We haven't the books." (p. 59).

Every school in the Transkei selected English as the medium of instruction. The greatest weakness of the syllabuses for the lower and primary classes was that African children began the study of their home language and also of the two official language of the Republic in their first year at school. In the secondary school some non-examination subjects had to be studied through the medium of the (African) home language. Half of the other subject had to be studied through the medium of English and half through the medium of Afrikaans.

Sprocas Publication No. 5 (1971) declared "This would seem to be a linguistic burden unique in the history of education." (p. 36).

The Cingo Commission condemned this system as contrary to sound educational principles. They recommended that the learning of the second additional language be postponed until the third school year and that one official language should be used as supplementary medium in secondary classes. Both proposals were rejected by the South African government as inconsistent with the principle of equal treatment for both official languages. It was unfortunate that the language issue was so vigorously applied as a political instrument in Black education for it eventually contributed to the 1976 school boycotts. Only recently have some changes been made in this regard. English as a medium of instruction now starts in Standard Three in most of the schools.

Behr (1978) points out that

"The Cillie Commission found that the root causes of the violence in 1976 were bitterness and frustration among Blacks about the use of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction in Black secondary schools." (p. 324).

Organised resistance to this by Blacks and the failure of education authorities and the police to foresee

inherent dangers and take the necessary preventive steps culminated in riots. Behr further says that

"The Commission did find that among the Black Community, especially in Soweto, there was considerable dissatisfaction with Black education .... Besides the objection to Afrikaans, there was dissatisfaction with the standard of education, the quality of teaching, the school buildings and equipment." (p. 325).

Shortly after the riots, changes were made in respect of Afrikaans as a medium in Black schools. It was announced that a start was to be made with compulsory and free education for Blacks in certain areas

#### 6.5 New Terminologies

Departmental committees were established to prepare terminologies for the main Bantu languages with the object of combining dialects, of introducing terms to describe modern scientific concepts and simplifying numerical terms. Duplicated lists of terms used in primary school subjects were issued to schools from time to time. In early 1963 these were consolidated and issued as booklets together with spelling instructions. What was peculiar in this arrangement was that all this introduction of new terms was imposed from above. In fact many of the new terms introduced did not convey the meanings of the concepts which they were intended to define. Some examples of these are :

INJIKO YENKALANKALA	- Tropic of Cancer
UNKIMfi	- Digestive System
ISIKHUTHA	- Carbon Dioxide

The terms lost their conceptual meaning because some were literal translations of the original terms. This made them deficient in explaining what they actually meant. "Tropic of Cancer" is an example of the deficiencies of the terms. The literal translation is (Injiko yenkalankala - (Inkalankala is a crab in Zulu). Teachers in the primary schools could hardly relate Tropic of Cancer and inkalankala (crab) and as such the whole concept had no meaning for either teachers or students. It seems that language should develop naturally, and the addition of new terminologies should to some extent take place gradually. If it is forced through governmental institutions, it is surely not likely to achieve positive ends.

Horrell (1968) says

"In a conference held during 1956, opinion was that mother tongue instruction would have the effect of reducing the horizons of Africans, cramping them intellectuall within the narrow bounds of tribal socie and diminishing the opportunity of inter communication between African groups the selves and also with the wider world in general of which they formed a part."  
(p. 60).

Africans increasingly lived in a technological world



and education through the medium of a language which was not equipped to deal with modern scientific concepts could not prepare them for this. Those entering employment required a mastery of at least one of the official languages. All Africans needed this to gain access to world culture. The preceding description points to the results of the Bantu Education Act, No. 47 of 1953. The Act profoundly affected Black education in the whole of South Africa. The writer will now focus specific attention on the effects of this Act on Natal/Kwa Zulu.

7. THE STATE OF EDUCATION IN THE PROVINCE :  
FOCUS ON NATAL - KWA ZULU

Referring to the provision of education for Blacks, the Report of the Buthelezi Commission (1982) in considering the requirements for stability and development in Kwa Zulu and Natal, reads,

"Historical, political, social and other factors have contributed to the present tremendous backlogs in educational opportunity, resources and provision."  
 (p. 256).

Large numbers of adults presently lack basic education as most of them have hardly had four years of schooling and thus are functionally illiterate. Citing the demand for education in South Africa, The Report of the Main Committee of the H.S.R.C. Investigation into Education (1981) declares

"In 1978 for example more than half the total number of Black pupils had still not reached Standard Two while more than three quarters (79,34%) were at primary school." (p. 23).

Fundamental to many of the problem areas, argues The Buthelezi Commission Report (1982 op.cit.),

"Is the fact that the majority of the population (Natal/Kwa Zulu as well as in South Africa) have been legislated for in respect of education and has had little say in educational decision making." (p. 256).

Black people have very little say in the education of their children and as a result they have very little influence in decision making.

The state of Black education in Natal/Kwa Zulu, as evidenced by the Buthelezi Commission, presents a very depressing picture. The backlogs occur in areas such as the quantity and quality of school buildings, the qualifications of teachers, pupil/teacher ratio and expenditure on education. On account of these backlogs it is obvious that adult education and various support services would serve a very useful purpose in Black education. These services would in a sense compensate for the problems of Black education. Some of these problems will now be analysed.

### 7.1 The Education Management System

Education in Natal/Kwa Zulu is controlled by five different departments : The Kwa Zulu Department of Education and Culture, the National Department of Education and Training which controls Black Schools outside Kwa Zulu, The Natal Education Department (for whites) and the Indian and Coloured Departments of Education, grouped within the Department of Internal Affairs. The present multiple control system is not satisfactorily serving the purposes of education. Some facilities are underutilized whilst others are burdened, and there is expensive duplication of resources and planning. This limits development of the region because large numbers of the poorer population are left with little resources and thus with very limited educational facilities. In the Daily News of September 9, 1982, Schreiner argues that

"The merging of the separate authorities into a single authority for the region is, perhaps the most immediately important step that should be taken." (p. 7).

The present writer feels that a single authority as suggested by Schreiner would obviate most of the problems caused by five different departments of education.

## 7.2 Functional Defectiveness

The Report of the Buthelezi Commission (1982) declares that

"The services offered under the present system have failed to meet the needs of the region in a number of ways." (p. 274)

Multiple control has led to societally undesirable discrepancies in standards of training, assessment and certification, it has obstructed the unitary planning that is needed if schools and training institutions are to develop courses and curricula which match pupils' abilities and aspirations to employment opportunities and manpower needs.

Natal/Kwa Zulu can be treated as one province with similar standards of training and certification as was the case before the Bantu Education Act of 1953. Before this act, different race groups wrote the University Junior Certificate and the Natal Junior Certificate and the Joint Matriculation Board examination. No race group complained about these examinations until the government decided to change the system in order to suit its political ideology of separate development. This has caused serious discrepancies and resentment.

## 7.3 The Operational Inefficiency

Multiple control has also prevented rationalization of resource utilization and has proved wasteful

more so in respect of capital equipment. Because of the inadequacies and defects, the present multiple control system has failed to win general acceptance and is seen as an instrument of discrimination. It is designed to perpetuate inequalities in the skills and educational attainments of the various population groups.

Multiple control has proved wasteful and it perpetuates inequalities at all levels of education. At university level for instance, many ethnic universities were built. The inadequacies and defects of the system cause a lot of unnecessary tensions. These affect the whole system of education not only in Natal/Kwa Zulu but in the whole country.

#### 7.4 Pupil/Teacher Ratios

In 1981 it was estimated that the Kwa Zulu Department of Education employed 17 211 teachers, and The Natal Education Department 6 795 teachers. Pupil/Teacher ratios according to the Report of the Buthelezi Commission are as follows

<u>Department</u>	<u>Primary Schools</u>	<u>Secondary Schools</u>
Kwa Zulu	1:56	1:40
N.E.T.	1:47	1:30
N.E.D.	1:19	1:13
Indian	1:28	1:22
Coloured	1:28	1:22

From the above figures it is apparent that teachers in Kwa-Zulu carry a heavier work load. Effective teaching cannot be done in such large classes. The morale of teachers is affected and students may also lose interest in learning.

#### 7.5 Teachers Qualifications

To understand more fully the inequalities in various education systems operating in Natal/Kwa Zulu one needs to go beyond per capita spending and pupil/teacher ratios. The most disturbing figures to be examined by The Buthelezi Commission relate to teachers' qualifications. The following table indicates the situation.

TABLE 2 : TEACHERS BY QUALIFICATION

QUALIFICATIONS	1980 Kwa Zulu	1980 Education	1980 N.E.D.	1979 Indian	1979 Coloured	TOTAL
<u>NOT Profession- ally Qualified</u>				650	86	736
J.C. (Std. 8 or lower	2470	902				3372
Technical Certificate	62	11				73
Senior Certificate	903	62				965
Incomplete Certificate or Degree	30	6	364			400
Degree	40	7	167	50		264
	3505	988	531	700	86	5810

QUALIFICATION	1980 Kwa Zulu	1980 Education	1980 N.E.D.	1979 Indian	1979 Coloured	TOTAL
Professionally Qualified					975	975
Standard 6	3332	720				4052
Junior	7272	1627				8900
Certificate						
Technical	10	1				11
Certificate						
Senior Cert.	1515	319				
and Primary Dip.						
Senior Cert.	836	75	4430	5000		12574
and Sec. Depl.						
Incomplete Degree	347	52				
Degree	360	77	2014	1400		3851
Special class	33	18	-	-		51
Certificate						
	13706	2889	6444	975		30414
	17211	3877	6975	7100	1061	36224

Source: The Buthelezi Commission

The Requirements for Stability and Development in  
Kwa Zulu and Natal Vol II p. 296.

The above table reveals the position in the teaching profession in Natal/Kwa Zulu. In addition to the problem of the quantity of teachers, the relative quality of the present teaching force is disappointing. In studying the above table, note should be taken that the distinction "professionally qualified" is made purely on the basis of obtaining of a teaching certificate irrespective of the academic level achieved.

Teachers who do not have professional certificates are referred to as unqualified. On the other hand the large number of teachers without matriculation or senior certificate but with a professional certificate are referred to as underqualified. They have generally only spent two years in teacher training institutions instead of three or four years as is the position now in most other education departments.

These teachers, both the unqualified and underqualified, clearly need to be upgraded so that the quality of education in Black schools can improve and again the need for adult education (of a specific type) is seen. In Natal/Kwa Zulu the bulk of Black teachers is made up of 7273 who have Standard Eight and some sort of teaching diploma, 3332 who have Standard Six and a teaching diploma, and 2470 who have Standard Eight or lower, but with no school teaching diploma.

The Department of Education and Training teachers can be categorised as follows : 77 with degrees, 394 with matriculation and teaching diploma, 86 with matriculation only, the remaining 3 249 with Standard Eight or lower of whom 2 374 have some sort of teaching diploma.



It may be concluded that more than anywhere else, the root causes of south Africa's skilled labour shortage (and the surplus of unskilled labour) are plain to observe. The Natal Witness, Thursday, August 27, 1981, said

"The chances of Black matriculation pupils being taught by someone who has not attained that level of education themselves are high." (p. 14).

Black schools therefore become the breeding ground of disillusionment, frustration and finally loss of interest. The number of teachers in training in the various departments and the number of school buildings available are also inadequate, particularly in the case of Kwa Zulu. In Kwa Zulu there are seven teacher training colleges catering for 3 161 students. The Department of Education and Training has one college with 478 students. The Indian and Coloured Education Departments have one college each with 844 and 237 students respectively, while the Natal Education Department has three colleges and about 1 300 student teachers undergoing training. Again, the disparities and inequalities are easy to observe.

On examining the pattern of qualifications of the N.E.D. teachers, the average qualification is seen to be a diploma representing three or four years study after matriculation, but over 30% of the

Teaching profession have a degree. On the other hand the average qualification of the Kwa Zulu teaching force is a junior certificate plus a diploma (2 years), and only 0,27% hold degrees. The present payment of teachers' salaries by qualification is also differentiated by race. The low salaries paid to persons who are poorly qualified i.e. those who do not hold a Senior Certificate are in some cases on a par with those paid to the cleaning staff of certain schools. This situation leads to resentment among teachers, sure to result in a low level of self-recruitment and possibly also, in a lowered level of motivation and performance.

#### 7.6 Backlog of Buildings to Cater for Present Pupil Attendance

The Buthelezi Commission investigated the position of school buildings in Natal/Kwa Zulu, particularly in terms of schools under the Department of Education and Culture and Education and Training. The investigation in this regard was based on an analysis of two particular factors :

- (1) The backlog of buildings in order adequately to cater for present school attendance and
- (2) The backlog of buildings in order to cater for those pupils not presently at school.

The following pupil numbers were used

Kwa Zulu	:	Primary	-	729 395
	:	Secondary	-	148 831
Education & Training	:	Primary	-	152 447
		Secondary	-	168 885

(Source: Buthelezi Commission Vol. II, p. 317).

In assessing the backlog of school buildings, the calculations were based on particular consideration that figures presently used in the Natal Education Department were ideal.

The Buthelezi Commission Report (1982) presents the following argument :

"If the figures for the N.E.D. are seen as those which all pupils require today in Natal, there would be a requirement of an additional 50 000 new classrooms." (p. 318).

The same Report further declares,

"It is probably beyond the present capacity of the state alone to provide for school buildings to meet these needs." (p. 319).

A suggestion is made to call on private companies and private initiative to finance such building operations. The building programme in the Natal/Kwa Zulu area emphasises the extent to which additional funding is required. Mention should be

made that state funding of building programmes does not extend equally across all groups. Particular note should be taken that community schools in the Kwa Zulu Department of Education and Culture are funded to a large extent by parental contributions. The inequality that is represented by calling upon the most deprived and disadvantaged group of the community to contribute 50% to the building of a classroom is one of the comparisons which present serious dissatisfaction among residents of Kwa Zulu.

## 8. THE PROBLEM OF INCOMPLETE EDUCATION

The nature and problems of the multiple system of Education control in Natal/Kwa Zulu contribute to the Black child beginning his educational career with considerable handicaps, as for example through the following factors.

### 8.1 Platoon System

The platoon system involves two classes, each with its own teacher, using the same classroom in separate sessions. At the time of writing,

"The Kwa Zulu Department of Education and Culture has 151 Community schools involved in a platoon system with 19484 pupils between Sub A and Standard Four." (Buthelezi Commission, p. 314).

In the Department of Education and Training in Natal

there are 17 similarly organised schools, with a pupil population of 2 685 between Sub A and Standard Two. There are about 50 such schools for Indians, with some 10 000 pupils affected.

## 8.2 Double Sessions

The double session system involves the same teacher teaching two classes (morning and afternoon) in the same classroom. The most recent statistics for Kwa Zulu schools, argues the Report of The Buthelezi Commission (1982)

"show that 1 188 schools with a total number of 218 000 pupils (made up of 120 000 in Sub A and 9 800 in Sub B) are involved in each double session. In the Department of Education and Training 171 schools are involved with 13 539 pupils (7 695 in Sub A and 5 844 in Sub B)." (idem).

As a result, children concerned are generally provided with incomplete education as they spend little time at school. By and large, the educational system not only fails to make up for this poor starting point, but it adds to the child's handicap through the physical conditions in which he learns. Among these are dilapidated buildings, inferior equipment, and poorly prepared teachers. As a result of all these factors militating against a Black child, products of Black education are bound to suffer serious educational and academic handicaps.

According to the Bursary Section of the Department of the Institute of Race Relations (1980:

"Many teachers have to teach subjects for which they are not trained and they become overburdened with the many subjects which they have to teach each day."  
(p. 1).

This further complicates the education of the Black child who may gradually resent going to school as he realises that he does not benefit much from the school system.

### 8.3 Drop-Out Rates

Loss of interest in schooling can be inferred from the drop-out rates for the various education departments in Natal/Kwa Zulu.

According to the Natal Witness of 27 August, 1

"These drop-out rates are also a result of the widely differing economic conditions between the various race groups, the effects of compulsory education, and also a forced drop-out percentage amongst Blacks due to lack of senior school places." (p. 14).

Schooling is compulsory for Whites up to the age of 16, for Indians to 15 and for Coloureds to 12. When compulsory education has commenced in some areas from the lower primary standards, in general, there is no compulsion for Blacks to attend school. The

figures given for drop-out rates relate to those remaining each year per 100 pupils entering school at Sub A.

TABLE 3 : SCHOOL DROP-OUTS

	SUB A	STD 6	STD 8	STD 10
Kwa Zulu	100	30	24	5
N.D.E.T.	100	16	9	2
White	100	90+	92	63
Indian	100	75	64	33
Coloured	100	63	43	18

SOURCE : THE NATAL WITNESS OF 27 AUGUST 1981, P. 14

NOTE: The National Department of Education and Training administers mainly farm schools at primary level, hence the extremely heavy drop-out rate in the higher standards.

Another indication of the high drop-out rate in Black schools is cited in the Report of the Main Committee of the H.S.R.C. Investigation into Education (1981). The relevant section reads,

"The percentage of pupils who started school in 1963 and who then completed twelve years of schooling was as follows for Whites, Indians, Coloureds and Blacks respectively : 58,40; 22,30; 4,40 1,96." (p.23).

The report declares, "This shows the tremendous loss of potential high-level manpower from the coloured and Black population groups in particular. (idem). A summary by The Advisory Council for Education and Training (28 April 1976) had the following notes on the drop-out problem :

"1. One of the major problems of educational development are:

- (a) In economic terms: Wastage of budget resource
- (b) In human terms : Individual potential, e.g. failure to achieve basic literacy." (p. 1).

The following are statistics revealing the drop-out situation:

TABLE 4 : SCHOOL DROP-OUTS

SUB A	1972	687 990	137 000 did not reach
STD 2	1975	419 212	Sub B
SUB A	1969	624 946	
STD 5	1975	221 019	
FORM I	1973	70 711	
FORM II	1975	50 772	
FORM I	1971	53 605	
FORM V	1975	9 009	

The reasons advanced for drop-outs included the following : Economic factors and factors



related to the community; delinquency and parental attitude to education; the family, and home discipline; and the individual; health. The school itself, its accessibility, physical accommodation and its holding power or quality of education are all other major factors causing a high drop-out rate in Black schools.

The Advisory Council suggested that no final solution could be effected until some form of compulsory education was introduced. It went on to say that before compulsion could come into force the following had to occur :

There was to be a reduction in pupil/teacher ratio to about 40,:1; a serious attempt had to be made to eliminate double sessions enabling children to have more time at school; free books and writing materials should be provided. There was need for sufficient classrooms to be built and this would ease overcrowding. Sufficient teachers were to be trained, as children taught by unqualified and underqualified teachers do not benefit sufficiently from education and they easily drop out. Attending to the above problems could to some extent, be reduced in terms of the high drop-out rate in the education of Black people.

## 9. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In his address on "The possible causes and remedies for the high drop-out rate in Black schools, Hartshorne (1976) argues that "The minimum requirement of four years schooling to achieve literacy is rather low, even though with sufficient stimulus, the level of literacy may improve after leaving school at this stage." (p. 10) But a rural person, declares Hartshorne

"regresses after leaving school. At least six years' schooling seems necessary to achieve cracy, literacy and numeracy which are basic." (idem).

Thus in terms of economics, for every child who has not completed Standard Two expenditure on education is a wastage. The acute wastage caused by the drop-out rate in Black education makes it imperative to make provision for adult education. Provision for adult education and continuing education would make it possible for drop-out to return to school even if they had left formal school. They would still find opportunities for self-improvement even non-formally when employed rather than having the rest of their lives wasted in ignorance.

Apart from the drop-outs who regress to illiteracy having had an opportunity of attending formal schooling for a few years, there are thousands of Blacks who have never been to school at all.

According to the pamphlet "Upgrading Adult Literacy" (1980),

"The number of illiterates who have been taught since 1968 is close on 120 000 and these are taught in nine different languages."

The large number of private candidates who write departmental examinations does indicate the serious need for adult education. The Bantu Education Journal of November 1975 noted that in 1974 there were 1 750 students who wrote Standard Six; 13 082 wrote Form Three examinations and 20 291 entered for one or more subjects in Senior Certificate. In spite of the efficient tuition given by a number of correspondence colleges, the failure rate among these private candidates was very high. the Journal further points out that

"One of the main reasons for this must be the difficulties of studying in isolation without the stimulation of a teacher."

The personal encouragement of and the specific tasks and tests set by the teacher in the classroom situation are clearly what many private candidates have need of. Adult education at its best and most effective can offer this service.

The Editor of the Bantu Education Journal (1975) argues in support of adult education for Blacks by pointing out that

"The much larger problem is one that centres on literacy, oracy and numeracy."

This is one of the main brakes on personal, social and economic development. As industry has endeavoured to upgrade the Black worker, the man with the industrial skill has not always had the communication skills to function at higher level. Many of those of 35 years and older did not have the opportunity of going to school twenty years and more ago. Some of those under 35 years did not stay at school long enough to build up a functional literacy, which would last into adult life. All this has resulted in a handicap which prevents the full realization of the potential of the illiterate.

The thick layer of illiterate Black parents supervising a young school-going population should be an area of concern among those involved in education in Natal/Kwa Zulu and in South Africa as a whole. Adult education would no doubt be very useful in trying to alleviate the problems.

This chapter has attempted to examine education as a social institution and to analyse the backlogs in Natal/Kwa Zulu. An attempt was also made to point out the demand for adult education in the region. The writer draws attention to the following recommendation made by The Buthelezi Commission (1982) and the Report of the Main Committee of the H.S.R.C. (1981). The former notes that

1. There is clear need for a unified system of education under the direction of one minister, with non-discriminatory provision of educational services for all. Participation by the whole community in decision-making at all levels is seen as basically important. An education system under the direction of one minister would alleviate duplication of resources and control by five different Departments of Education in Natal/Kwa Zulu. Parents have a right to make decisions on the education of their children. Community involvement in decision making is essential if the rights of the parents are to be respect
2. That in order to attain parity in as short a period as possible education authorities in the region should be advised to draft a priority list of budgetary requests, particularly for the elimination of backlogs. These backlogs occur in areas such as the quality and quantity of school buildings, the qualification of teachers, teacher/pupil ratio, teachers' salaries, adult education and support services. Education for Blacks cannot improve unless serious attempts are made to eliminate backlog as soon as possible. Apart from improved financing of the education for Blacks, adult education has to be considered by the state and by private bodies. This could be by providing adult education programmes for the

general public and also by improving teachers' qualifications through all forms of inservice training and teacher upgrading programmes.

3. Education and state authorities should be encouraged to consider radical alternatives such as overseas loan aids for the funding of a programme to eliminate backlogs in priority areas. Overseas loans should be considered to eliminate backlogs. The Report of the Buthelezi Commission declares "It is probably beyond the present capacity of the state alone to provide for school buildings to meet these needs." (p. 319). This emphasizes the need for foreign assistance.

The following recommendations were the contribution of the H.S.R.C. Report (1981)

1. The progressive introduction of nine years compulsory education, six years of which should be compulsory schooling devoted to basic education.
2. The introduction of pre-basic bridging period aimed at school readiness as soon as possible, where the need is greatest. Apart from the need for compulsory schooling, a pre basic bridging period is essential particularly for children who come from poor and culturally

deprived communities as these children normally start schooling at a disadvantage.

3. The expansion of preparatory vocational education, in addition to preparatory academic education to meet the manpower needs of the country.
4. The establishment as soon as possible of the necessary infrastructure for the provision of non-formal education. The provision of non-formal education would be helpful because it would solve the different forms of incomplete education caused by the high drop-out rate and widespread illiteracy in Natal/Kwa Zulu as well as in South Africa.
5. The granting of the right to councils of autonomous educational institutions in higher education to decide who should be admitted as students. The education for Blacks in Kwa Zul is handicapped by a very small supply of professionals and trained technicians at all levels. The region is also short of leaders in the economic, political, social and educational spheres. If students could be admitted to colleges of higher learning without discrimination provided they have the necessary entrance qualifications, backlogs would be alleviated and educational standards would

improve among the educationally deprived sector of the community.

On examining the above recommendations, one may conclude that backlogs in Black education are of a varied nature. The following may be emphasised among many : widespread illiteracy, unqualified and underqualified teachers, inadequate buildings and poor funding. It becomes obvious therefore that adult education is a necessary service in the Black sector of Natal/Kwa Zulu. It should however be noted that adult education is only an indirect way of solving the problem. The direct method would be the recommendations of the Investigation named. The H.S.R.C. Report (1981) points out that the introduction of compulsory education for all race groups in the country would alleviate several problems. This for instance is the most obvious way of attacking future illiteracy in the country. Adult education should not be faced with problems like basic literacy which should have been solved by formal schooling.

In a country like South Africa a country which is comparatively richer than most of the Third World countries, adult education should be concerned with post school problems.

The next chapter will be concerned with an elaboration of the concept adult education and with an attempt to illustrate it as an example of non-formal education.



## CHAPTER 2 : ADULT EDUCATION : ITS MEANING AND IMPORTANCE

### 1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter drew attention to but some of the many problems besetting the provision and administration of education (particularly for Blacks) in the Natal/Kwa Zulu area. It is immediately evident that because of the shortfalls and problems, vast numbers of adults exist who have either never been part of a school system or for whom such system has lost impact. The need for adult education in such circumstances should be clear.

The intention of this brief chapter is to expand upon the concept of adult education as a basis for the analysis which follow.

In order to place adult education in perspective and to perceive its aims, the writer refers to a selection of views on the concept.

In the journal "Adult Education" Volume 54, No. 4 (1982) we read the following:

"However, the process of learning per se has no value. Hence it is suggested that a fundamental rationale for adult education lies with the learner : a human being who grows and develops throughout the whole of life; education, according to Dewey (1916 : 15) is the enterprise of supplying the conditions which ensure growth, or adequacy of life irrespective of age." (p. 343)

One of the aims of adult education therefore is to supply the conditions which ensure growth and adequacy of life, irrespective of the learner's age.

Fordham (1979) cites Hall and Kidd who assert that

"Adult education encompasses the human, educative and political dimensions of society." (p. 8).

The above sentiments are echoed in the words

"The process of arousing self-awareness and social consciousness is of particular importance in the education of adults."  
"Adult Education," (op.cit.)

From these quotations one may conclude that among the aims of adult education are:

1. To supply the conditions which ensure growth.
2. To develop the human, educative and political dimension of society and
3. To arouse self and social consciousness in society.

The primary aim of adult education is to help each individual man, woman and youth to make the best of life and thus continue the process of growth. Adult education attempts to improve the lives of individuals young and old.

## 2. THE AIMS OF ADULT EDUCATION

If the primary aim of adult education is to help each individual man, woman and youth to make the best of life through developing all possible talents, it seems that care needs to be taken in the approach to this aim. In the first place co-ordination is necessary. It is essential that a country should enunciate its own set of aims both for education as a whole and also specifically for adult education. This because each country has its own needs, priorities and problems which are different from other countries. Thus Kwa Zulu/Natal should have its own aims relevant to its needs and priorities.

Coles (1977) cites the national objectives of Adult education in Nigeria which are :

1. To provide functional literacy education for adults who have never had the advantage of any formal education.
2. To provide functional remedial education for those young people who prematurely dropped out of the formal school system.

3. To provide further education for different categories of completers of the formal education system in order to improve their basic knowledge and skills.
4. To provide inservice, on the job vocational and professional training for different categories of workers and professionals in order to improve their skills.
5. To give the adult citizen of the country the necessary aesthetic, cultural and civic education for public enlightenment.

Having defined the national aims of adult education it is of the utmost importance that these aims are given legal sanction through government legislation. Thus in his policy speech of 1979, the Kwa Zulu Minister of Education and Culture said,

"The Department continues to take a keen interest in adult Education. During the financial year the Department subsidized the teachers of Standard Eight and Ten classes at six Adult Education centres. This year an amount of R54 430 will be spent on Adult Education as against R30 000 last year."

The writer feels that the Kwa Zulu Education Department takes a keen interest in Adult Education. The unfortunate part of this programme is that it is very poorly funded and as such it is failing badly to meet the demands. To meet the education backlogs in Kwa Zulu both formal and non-formal education are essential.

### 3. THE HISTORY OF ADULT EDUCATION

The concept and practice of continuing education has its roots in the history of adult education. Kelly (1970), cited by Morphet and Millar (1981) notes that

"British adult education has a long and influential history stretching back to medieval times."

The adult education movement was part of the Revolution which transformed a country of peasant farmers and small scale craftsmen into an industrial democracy. Whilst people lived under earlier conditions, governed by custom and tradition and experiencing little change in their daily lives, illiteracy presented no problem. Among the features which may be noted in the early period of adult education in Britain are the religious awakening of the 18th Century, together with a growth in popular education. This began when Methodism became characteristic of all the religious bodies including the established church in the 19th Century. This sprang from the belief that if the poor were to lead moral, useful and happy lives in spite of the difficulties of the times, they had to read the Bible. It was this belief that inspired the early Sunday schools.

Peers (1972) argues that,

"Adult education becomes significant as practice and as an instrument of social policy during periods of social crisis or rapid change."

This is because the adult community exercises an immediate and powerful influence on the direction and purposes of society.

The period between 1839 and 1844, says Peers (1972 p. 9), shows that

"In the whole of England and Wales 33,7% of males and 49,5% of females signed with a mark. At the end of the period, the corresponding figures were 32,4 and 49,2% respectively." (p.9)

In Lancaster and Chester which embraced the new manufacturing districts, the figures were 38,8% among males and 66,7% for females. In this situation, it was not enough for religious and philanthropic bodies alone to start day schools or Sunday schools. The attack on mass ignorance had also to include the adult population. It was to this task that the adult schools of the early 19th Century addressed themselves.

The object of the early adult schools was to teach the poor and ignorant to read in order that they might be able to read the scriptures. These schools were the outcome of philanthropy and religious zeal on the part of their founders and conductors. It was also thought that education would lead to a diminution of crime. During this period illiteracy began to be felt as a reproach and as something to be ashamed of. As children learned to read parents began to feel inferior

to their children. This is also true of South African Blacks where children learn to read and write and parents begin to feel inferior. This may even result in problems of discipline in the family. Those parents who had struggled to educate themselves became more interested in the education of their children. The evolution of machinery called for a higher grade of labour, and as machinery itself became more delicate and complicated in construction and operation, a need arose for a new and more intelligent class of workers.

The lack of education came to be regarded as a symbol of political inferiority. Pears (op.cit.) declares that

"The insistence on the need for education as a means to social and political emancipation became characteristic of all the struggling working class organisations." (p. 21).

The early co-operative societies, the trade unions, working men's associations and the chartist movement gathered to itself all the discontents and demanded education for all. The leaders of this period further argued that so long as the people were ignorant, their struggle to achieve equality of political status was weakened. Even if universal suffrage were attained, an uneducated people would be unable to reap the full benefits of their political rights. Education in this regard became a necessary condition for complete

emancipation. In the modern post-1940 period, adult education in Britain has diversified considerably. The state, acting through a large number of regional local education authorities, offers provision for cultural and recreative programmes. This period shows an increasing participation by the middle classes pursuing the goals of personal development recreation and cultural enrichment. It seems necessary to refer to the 1944 Education Act in England and Wales) which, as Titmus (1981) notes :

"It shall be the duty of every local education authority to secure the provision for their area of adequate facilities for further education that is to say :

- (a) full time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age;
- (b) leisure time occupation in such organised cultural training and recreative activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose. p. 24).

The system of adult education in Britain, and an account of the writer's visits to certain institutions there, will be the substance of Chapter 5 of this work.

In the period since the 1960, say Morphet and Millar (1981), marked changes in the economy have begun to exercise pronounced effects on adult educational provision. Among these economic factors, the following are significant :



1. Rising levels of skill and industrial work;
2. Youth unemployment;
3. Increasing leisure;
4. Retraining requirements.

Each of the above factors, point out Morphet and Millar, can be traced directly to the extremely rapid rise in the rate of technological change in the 1960's and 1970'. In response, several new institutional arrangements for adult education have been provided in various countries by the state. Most significant among them are the following :

1. Further education colleges - linked to Adult Education.
2. Industrial Training Boards
3. The Manpower Services Commission which co-ordinates a wide range of job training programmes, e.g. youth opportunity programmes.
4. Paid educational leave.
5. Trade Union Congress Education programmes funded by state subsidy.

These state funded initiatives make provision for retraining redundant labour and for upgrading skill levels. There are several other significant recent developments in the general field of adult education in Britain:

1. The open university.
2. Investment in Basic Education for adults, including literacy work.
3. The development of Community Education.
4. The rapid growth of post-experience upgrading education provided by universities, professor associations and private bodies.

All these developments indicate the need for adult education at all levels in modern times; some of them will be referred to in Chapter 5.

#### 4. ADULT EDUCATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Adult education in Africa is closely related to formal education. The significant periods in the educational history of Africa can, according to Morphet and Millar (1981, p. 16), be divided into three phases :

The late colonial period of 1950 - 60;

The independence or first development decade of 1960 - 70. and

The second development decade, 1970 - 80.

Each period will now briefly be discussed. The writer acknowledges his debt in this section to Morphet and Millar (op.cit.).

##### 4,1 The Late Colonial Period

Education during this period was dominated by the political developments leading towards independence. Leadership training became a

dominant concern of all parts of the formal and non-formal education system. Morphet and Millar point out that the formal system had largely consisted of a mission-controlled primary sector with a very small secondary provision leading on to one or two prestige colleges such as Makerere College in Uganda. Through the colonial period this very limited provision provided a narrow channel up which the leadership group ascended. As independence approached, education became a crucial pressure point. Formal schools could only meet a fraction of the pressure and as a consequence extensive extra mural adult education activities were established, notably by the Oxford Delegation. This plan for non-formal adult education was based loosely on the British model of university extra-mural work. Resident tutors attached to one or other of the prestige colleges e.g. Achimota, though funded and employed by the colonial government, were required to provide classes for outlying provincial areas in the colonies. The substance of the classes was concerned with the curriculum of political science and the general development of the people. Their purpose was to train and develop local leadership groups. The programme served an essential function since it was plain that the withdrawal of the colonial administration would leave open extensive opportunities for aspiring leadership candidates at local and national level.

#### 4.2 The Independence Decade : 1960 - 70

The dominant theme in the educational development of the 1960's was a massive investment in and expansion of the formal school system. Some of the factors which made this imperative will now be pointed out.

Schooling was seen as the route out of poverty and ignorance and towards the fruits of the developing modern sector. There were posts to be filled in the civil service, and educational qualification provided access to these positions. Rapid expansion of formal primary schooling on the academic model led quickly to primary qualifications losing their value. The primary school certificate, hitherto the open door to employment, meant little. The numbers of unemployed primary school leavers emerged as a serious social and educational problem Dore (1976) cited by Morphet and Millar notes that

"By the end of the decade the formal schooling system was seen to be producing large groups of unemployable and unstable people."

#### 4.3 The Second Development Decade

The disillusionment caused by, amongst other things, the unemployed primary school leaver problem resulted in a marked swing in educational policy. Influential international planners, for

example. Coombs (1968), urged the adoption of rurally-based non-formal approaches to education. These approaches were intended to solve the problem at a "grass-roots" level. The intention was to include a diversity of means for spreading basic education to meet the minimum essential learning needs of all rural young people and to lead towards a new type of rural education which would generate knowledge for the rural area.

Coombs (1973, p.46) cites an example of non-formal education programmes as the Polytechnics in Kenya, whose development covered three aspects : The privately initiated and locally managed Village polytechnics, a home grown, low cost model that provided training in rural skills for the self-employment of primary graduates; the Kenya National Youth Service which provided training to out of school youths through a nationwide para-military type organisation; and a radio-correspondence programme that provided junior secondary school equivalency courses. In every case the formal system remained dominant and non-formal approaches have been identified as second best or at least as devices to pacify those excluded from formal schools. The problems of education in the first and third world are significantly different as Wandira (1977) points out :

"The formal school system of America, Western Europe, Russia and Japan differ markedly from the emerging school systems of Africa in the extent to which they can reach the vast majority of the school-going populations of their countries." (p. 63)

Developed countries face problems arising out of the massification of education. The problems of African educational systems are different in that here, the school remains a minority institution.

Wandira (op.cit. p. 65) provides this Unesco survey of the number of pupils enrolled in primary schools as a percentage of all children of primary school age in some countries in 1970. The figures then were as follows :

TABLE 5 : PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT

<u>COUNTRY</u>	<u>% OF CHILDREN AT SCHOOL</u>	<u>% NOT AT SCHOOL</u>
Gambia	30%	70%
Ghana	71%	29%
Liberia	36%	64%
Nigeria	31%	69%
Sierra Leone	36%	64%
Ethopia	15%	85%
Somalia	9%	91%
Kenya	61%	39%
Malawi	39%	61%
Uganda	43%	57%
Tanzania	33%	67%

In a report to the H.S.R.C. Investigation into Education, the University of Natal, Department of Education noted that

"The percentage of school-going age children (among South African Blacks) is approximately 75%. 21,4% of the total Black population is at school which is comparable with the figure for most developed countries. In the case of the Black population an attendance of 27 - 28% of the total would need to be at school to ensure 100% attendance." (Appendix C, p. 4).

The figures confirm that whereas in Africa there is a massive and urgent need for education of both formal and non-formal nature, in the developed countries adult education is designed to broaden and extend the talents and capacities of individuals by encouraging mid-career development and mobility. In this way education responds to the challenge of rapid technical development and maintains the momentum and coherence of social growth.

In the underdeveloped countries continuing education is seen as the best means of attacking illiteracy, incomplete education, poverty, ignorance and poor economic performance. The publication "Adult Education (1982) of the National Institute of Adult Education Vol. 54, number 1 reads:

"At the Third Conference of the African Adult Education Association held in Dar es Salaam in 1971 the disturbing trends of illiteracy statistics were as follows: (p.27)

TABLE 6 : ILLITERACY RATES

<u>COUNTRY</u>	<u>% OF ILLITERACY IN THE POPULATION</u>
Ghana	75 - 80
Kenya	75 - 80
Malawi	90 - 95
Nigeria	80 - 90
Sierra Leone	90 - 95
Tanganyika	90 - 95
Uganda	70 - 75
Gambia	90 - 95
Swaziland	80 - 85

The publication "Adult Literacy Teachers Association of South Africa notes that 50.3% Blacks are illiterate in South Africa. The problems of formal education in Africa require a detailed analysis of non-formal education, of which the need in South Africa is very urgent. This has emerged from the 1981 Investigation into Education pursued by the Human Sciences Research Council

5. NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA,  
INCLUDING NATAL/KWA ZULU

Principle 5 of The Principles for the Provision of Education in the R.S.A. (1981) declares :

"Education shall endeavour to achieve a positive relationship between the formal, non-formal and informal aspects of education in the school, society and family",

and principle 7 adds :



"The private sector and the state shall have a shared responsibility for the provision of non-formal education."  
(p. 15).

These words indicate that South African society and particularly South African educationists are aware that there is serious need for non-formal education in the country. The H.S.R.C. Report "Provision of Education in the R.S.A." (1981) recommends that one of the priorities for education in South Africa should be :

"The establishment as soon as possible of the necessary infrastructure for the provision of non-formal education."  
(p. 216).

This highlights the need for non-formal education in Natal/Kwa Zulu as well as in South Africa as a whole. Those who regarded themselves as adequately trained for their fields of work a few years ago, now find that retraining and further training are essential. The Human Sciences Research Council Report argues that ,

"The need for training and retraining is becoming increasingly urgent, particularly for those who did not have the opportunity of receiving any training at all in the past." (p. 82).

Muir (1981) in a Workshop for a National Education Conference in Grahamstown declares,

"In many countries and in the Third World in particular, the belief is held that formal schooling is the most important single positive factor in for example political and socio-economic development." (p. 3).

Vos (1981 echoes the criticisms expressed by Muir and writes,

"Recalling their own experience with the power of formal education to effect change ... the Black National leaders concluded that to lead their respective countries and peoples to the riches of their erstwhile masters would require formal school education." (p. 2).

In recent times however it has become obvious that formal education per se is not the solution. Vos further argues that in some Black African countries, primary education has been made free and compulsory and this has resulted in other problems : It soon became evident that neither the government services nor the private sector could cope with the demand for employment and thousands of unemployed roamed the streets.

"These masses of unemployed people created slum conditions around the cities which in turn became a breeding place for crime and other undesirable social problems." (p. 3)

This suggests that reliance on formal education as the only instrument for development is unrealistic. There is, however, a reason for this reliance on formal education as an instrument for solving social economic and political problems.

Fordham (1979) declares,

"We are all products of formal schools and tend to think of education in those terms." (p. 2).

To improve education, argues Fordham,

"Educators often give priority to the extension of schools in length of courses and in age participation rates." (p. 2)

Little thought, particularly in the past, was given to the contribution which non-formal education could make.

Non-formal education is defined by Cole in a paper prepared for a National Education Conference, Grahams-town in 1982 as

"Education that proceeds in a planned but highly adaptable way in institutions, organisations and situations outside the spheres of formal and informal education." (p. 1).

The same writer describes non-formal education as :  
Education that develops alongside formal education to provide for more adaptable short-term specific and limited responses to educational needs. Non-formal education, declares the H.S.R.C. Report,

"is directed towards literacy, induction, inservice training, retraining, support programmes (for parents, for example) ad hoc needs, a second chance for those who either never entered the formal system or left it early, upgrading of individuals with inadequate

educational levels so that they can re-enter the formal system, satisfying the demand for leisure time activities that can be carried out with minimum of preparatory instruction." (p. 93).

From the above it is apparent that in concept, non formal education is very flexible. Principle 4 of the Report of the H.S.R.C. has a strong bearing on the future provision of non-formal education. It reads.

"The provision of education shall be directed in an educationally responsible manner to meet the needs of the individual as well as those of society and economic development and shall, inter alia take into consideration the manpower needs of the country." (p. 15).

It is quite evident that in order to achieve this objective, formal education would have to be complemented by non-formal education. It is also implied that non-formal education should be directed to meeting manpower needs : in other words that it should involve job-training. The commonly held view that formal education brings about development, economic progress and improved standards of living is now seriously questioned, according to Cole (1981 op.cit.). Cole argues

"The quality of life of a country can only be influenced by education if the system of provision meets the real needs of society." (p. 2).

In order therefore that the education system should meet the real needs of a country, the formal system cannot be used alone.

Fordham (1979) argues that, "The non-formal idea is a reaction against the failure of the formal system." (p. 4). He further argues that, "Formal systems are seen as a means of distribution of resources." (p. 4). They are seen as a concentration on preparation for the next stage of learning rather than preparation for life. The underemployment of many school leavers are just some of the dissatisfactions resulting from the inadequacy of formal schooling. Thus the need for interdependence between formal and non-formal education.

Non-formal education has certain characteristics peculiar to itself, and Fordham declares that "There have been a number of attempts to delineate the main characteristics of non-formal alternatives." (p. 5). He cites Simkins who does this in relation to purposes, timing, content, delivery systems and control. The three greatest advantages of non-formal education, argues Simkins, are "cheapness, relevance and flexibility. Relevance and flexibility however are central features of non-formal education." (p. 5).

The following Table indicates the Ideal Type models of Formal and Non-formal Education.

(Source : Fordham (1979 p. 4).

TABLE 7 : AN IDEAL TYPE MODEL OF FORMAL AND  
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION, ACCORDING  
TO FORDHAM (1979)

FORMAL	NON-FORMAL
<u>PURPOSES</u>	
Long term and general : credential based	Short term and specific : non credential based
<u>TIMING</u>	
Long cycle	Short cycle
Preparatory	Recurrent
Full Time	Part Time
<u>CONTENT</u>	
Input centered and standardized academic clientele determined by entry requirements	output centered and individualised practical entry requirements determined by clientele
<u>DELIVERY SYSTEM</u>	
Institution-based	Environment-based
Isolated (from the socio-economic environ- ment and from social action	Community-related
Rigidly - structured	Flexibly-structured
Teacher-centred	Learner-centred
Resource-intensive	Resource-saving
<u>CONTROL</u>	
External	Self-governing
Hierarchical	Democratic

The table indicates the basic differences between formal and non-formal education. Fordham asserts that,

"In order for both to retain their dynamism and to relate effectively to the formal system, non-formal educators need to proclaim and build upon five main areas : Those concern the categories of the target groups, purposes, organisation methods and relationships with the formal structure." (p. 4.)

The present writer submits that non-formal educators should be able to identify and know these areas. To produce effective results, non-formal education should also be able to respond to specific needs in an area. Fordham states that

"A concentration on non-participating target groups i.e. those who have not been well served by the formal system - the drop-outs, the left-outs and the failures - is common to both developed and developing countries." (p. 5).

Non-formal education therefore is of great advantage in trying to compensate those suffering different forms of educational deprivation. Even those who suffer from socio-economic deprivation and people from poor environments can have programmes developed to assist them through non-formal education.

#### 6. EDUCATION WHICH PREPARES PEOPLE FOR WORK

Cole (op.cit.) notes that

"Compulsory education is not yet available for all members of a rapidly growing population, and so many children, particularly Black and Coloured, leave school early." (p. 3).

A newsletter for the Adult Literacy Teachers Association of South Africa (1981) echoes the sentiments of the De Lange Report and says,

"In South Africa it has been estimated that in 1980 55,3% of the Black population were illiterate." (p. 1).

The fact that the bulk of the population is illiterate creates problems in the work situation and this is a hindrance towards productivity in industry. Another problem is that in South Africa it seems agreed that there is too much emphasis on academic oriented education at the expense of career education which is work related. It is therefore necessary to make provision for career education outside the formal system.

Cole (1981) asserts that

"This will ensure that people will be properly equipped to fill the available jobs or create self employment." (p. 3).

Education which prepares people for employment is therefore another feature of non-formal education and it can help those who have been deprived of formal schooling. Cole (1981) proposes the following programme for adoption outside the formal system :



TABLE 8 : EDUCATION OUTSIDE THE FORMAL SYSTEM AT ALL  
LEVELS I.E. NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

<u>LEVEL</u>	
Primary Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Non Formal Education</li> <li>- Literacy programmes</li> <li>- General primary education for adults (compensatory education). Basic adult education (life and occupational skills, including community education and development).</li> </ul>
Secondary Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- General secondary education for adults (compensating education at junior secondary to senior secondary school level). Occupational programmes at semi-skilled levels.</li> </ul>
Post Secondary Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- advanced occupational programmes</li> <li>- continuing professional education</li> <li>- part-time courses at university degree level</li> <li>- public non-formal cultural education programmes at advanced levels.</li> </ul>

(Source : Cole, 1981, p. 4).

7. THE INTERACTION BETWEEN FORMAL AND NON-FOR  
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

The distinction between formal and non-formal education is one of definition, as indicated in Chapter I as well as earlier in the present chapter. Cole (1981, op.cit.) notes that "The dividing line between the two systems is vague." (p. 8). This is true because there are important similarities and differences between formal and non-formal education. However, Morphet and Millar in their submission on non-formal education declare that :

"Non-formal education will be taken as a root concept referring to the full range of educationally specifiable activities which fall outside the hierarchically structured chronologically graded education system running from the primary school through to university and other nationally certificated programmes and institutions for post school training." (p. 2).

It is important that there has to be interaction between formal and non-formal education because the two systems are interdependent and one is complementary to the other

The H.S.R.C. Report on Provision of Education in the R.S.A. (1981) notes that

"Education should be provided in three successive phases : pre-basic, basic and post basic." (p. 98).

Pre-basic education should be directed towards school readiness, basic education should be directed towards basic literacy and its subsequent consolidation and post basic education should be directed towards differentiated educational needs. Post basic education, according to the Report, should be subdivided into intermediate and higher education. The H.S.R.C. Report points out that

"Basic education is the minimum education which must be provided in order to have a reasonable assurance that the learner will profit from the next phase." ( p. 100).

The acquisition of basic literacy has to enable the learner to achieve a measure of self-reliance in the use of primary and cultural instruments. This means reading, writing, culculating, speaking and listening.

After basic education the learner should be receptive to further education, or on leaving formal education, receptive to vocational training or instruction within non-formal education. A period of six years is proposed because this will ensure a high degree of basic literacy. A perid of six years would also bring children close to the possibility of becoming trainees in work situations and of continuing their education on a part-time basis by means of non-formal education. Post basic education is seen as divided into three phases junior, intermediate, senior intermediate and higher education. Learners in the junior intermediate phase should have a sufficiently broad acquaintance with

different subjects. This will enable them to make a reasonable choice of subjects on entering the senior intermediate phase, or of a career direction and training which implies non-formal education. The Senior Intermediate education phase has to cater for those for whom taking up an occupation offers the best path for development. It has also to enable those who will benefit more from career oriented part-time training or inservice training with non-formal education, while they work. It should also enable those who are slow to mature or late developers who have a desire for further formal education, to attain the way back to formal study.

The last phase envisaged is that of higher education. The duration of this varies depending according to the level and grade of skill and competence to be reached by the learner. At the end of all these levels of basic junior and senior intermediate phases, provision for non-formal education is required to be made. Outlets to non-formal education and inlets to formal education are envisaged in order to establish interaction between the two systems and also to make the two systems complementary.

## 8. EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

Problems of education during the post-independence period in some African countries have made educationists view formal education slightly differently. Vos (1981) points out that

"To avoid or to minimise the bitter fruits of the African experience with regard to education for development, it is recommended that serious attention be given to the following :

- (1) Education the formal school system must be regarded as a most powerful force - a force which if abused, unleashes a torrent of disruptive and frustrating social conditions which could misdirect millions of unhappy people.
- (2) Education (formal schooling) in itself is unable to bring about desired changes for broad national development." (p. 51).

Thus, it seems clear that formal schooling in developing countries should function and interact with non-formal education in order to contribute to national development.

The problems in Natal/Kwa Zulu are, in many ways, similar to problems in the rest of Africa. There may be differences but the central issues are more or less alike. Ellis (1981) in his article on "Third World Model for Education", points out that South Africa is often characterised as having a First World and Third World existing along each other :

"The socio-economic position of the majority of Blacks in this country is typically of the Third World." (p. 8).

South Africa, Natal and Kwa Zulu can thus learn from the mistakes of other African countries. National leaders in the African countries have had strong reliance on formal education and have usually completely disregarded non-formal education. What has been observed in this

chapter is quite relevant to Natal/Kwa Zulu, i.e. the importance of non-formal education. Some existing provisions for this will be analysed in Chapter 3.

The paper by the Urban Foundation entitled "Education Beyond the School" (1982) declares

"We must deal with a situation in which the majority of the adult population of the R.S.A. has to date had little or no education." (p. 6).

Further

"This is an historical situation which will not be touched by even the most scientifically-planned and generously financed school system." (p. 6).

The neglect of Black education during the past decades has resulted in backlogs of different types, e.g. insufficient school buildings, unqualified and underqualified teachers, and poor financing of the school system. Thus, it is true that even the most scientifically-planned and generously financed school system cannot solve the problems completely. Hence the need for the provision of adult and non-formal education. Adult and non-formal education are essential to improve the educational standards of a large Black deprived group. The formal school system alone cannot solve Black South Africa's educational problems.

The next two chapters are concerned with an analysis of the opportunities which presently exist for adult Blacks in Natal/Kwa Zulu to improve upon their educational experiences. While Chapter 3 is concerned with such adults in general, the focus in Chapter 4 falls specifically upon members of the teaching profession.

## CHAPTER 3 : OPPORTUNITIES FOR ADULT BLACKS IN NATAL/KWA ZULU TO ENGAGE IN EDUCATION

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Lengrad (1975) argues that

"The moulding of human beings at every level of education should be towards a kind of life in which evolution, change and transformation can find a place."  
(p. 72).

Adult education in particular should, it seems, be an agent of social change. Examining the meaning of development, Rogers (1982) argues that

"Until recently a limited view of development as economic growth has been held. Recently, a wider view of development, as leading to social and political change, has been held."  
(p. 28).

Rogers further asserts that

"Development means essentially change and at the centre of any development, it must be people who must change and this will mean a programme of education." (idem).

This chapter will present a survey and analysis of some of the opportunities for adult education which are



provided for Black adults in Natal/Kwa Zulu. Although teachers are included in this broad group, facilities for them will be specifically considered in Chapter 4.

Day school facilities are used for adults in the evenings by both the Department of Education and Training and the Department of Education and Culture. In Natal, the Department of Education and Training has established adult education centres in Vryheid, Dundee, Ladysmith, Durban, Lamontville, Tongaat, Stanger, Shakasville and Klaarwater.

In Kwa Zulu, the Department of Education and Culture runs over forty adult education centres in circuits ranging from Madadeni, Bergville, Umlazi (where there are sixteen centres), Port Shepstone, Nongoma and Umbombo.

The Editorial of the Bantu Education Journal, February 1977 reads,

"Since August 1975 the Department has been giving specific attention to the field of adult education. In order to strengthen the existing night school system adult education centres, fully financed, are being set up." (p. 3).

According to this journal,

"The main purpose of the adult centres will be to assist adult private candidates who enter for departmental examinations, principally at Junior and Senior Certificate levels (p.3).

Among these, of course, are the many teachers attempting to improve their academic qualifications. The other area of concern to which attention is given is the development of literacy among adults. The Journal adds that

"It is trusted that these upgrading programmes will be supported not only by the Black community but also by industry by giving recognition to improved qualifications." (idem).

The aims of the adult education centres are thus

- (1) To help the general public who are adult private candidates of the junior and Senior Certificate examinations;
- (2) To assist Inservice Teachers preparing for the same examinations;
- (3) To establish literacy programmes for people who never went to school and for those who dropped out early from the school system.

It should be noted that adults attending the evening classes have the same syllabuses as day school students, and they write similar examinations. The present writer submits that in some instances what the adults are taught in the adult education centres is not related to their real needs as adults. This implies the need for curriculum innovation specifically for the education of adult people.

Adults who attend classes in adult education centres have the same syllabuses as day school students and they write the same Standard Eight and Ten examinations. On occasion they feel their studies to be unrelated to their real needs. The idea has been expressed that syllabuses for adults taking school examinations should be different from those undergone by pupils and more related to practical issues. Nolan (1981) argues on "How relevant is it for a petrol attendant who is a married man, and with a family to support to learn the characteristics of insects? ... will it help him to understand the matters of finance involve in insurance?" (idem). While such views as this may be accused of narrowness, they demonstrate a widely held belief in the need for more pragmatic adult education in Kwa Zulu. It seems that Departments of Education could well adjust the syllabuses of adults so that they relate and are more meaningful to their life situations, while retaining "currency".

## 2. GOVERNMENT PROVISION FOR ADULT EDUCATION

### 2.1 Department of Education and Training Centres

In Natal the Department of Education and Training distinguishes four types of centres for adult education all of which must be registered.

#### 2.1.1 State Centres

Here the Department assumes all responsibility, provides subsidies, pays teachers and covers all other liabilities.

### 2.1.2 State-aided Centres

These are established on behalf of companies who wish to provide some form of education for their own employees. They are established by the Department and are subject to inspection. The Department supplies study material and pays the salaries of teachers who undertake literacy courses. Other qualified teachers must be paid for by the sponsoring company, e.g. Alusaf at Empangeni.

### 2.1.3 Circuit Centre Satellites

These provide inservice training towards matriculation for teachers and policemen. These centres make use of white teachers when no Black teachers are available.

### 2.1.4 Private Centres

There are also private centres which must be registered but receive no subsidy e.g. the Emmanuel Cathedral in Durban.

## 2.2 KWA ZULU DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

In Kwa Zulu, registration of adult education centres occurs only after the school committee and principal of the school whose buildings are to be used have agreed to the use of the existing buildings and have pledged their support. The Urban Foundation is financing a teacher upgrading programme at Dr. J Dube High School in Kwa Mashu and at the Umlazi Commercial High School at Umlazi. Members of the

Natal Teachers Society assist in lecturing to the teachers at the above centres and in Pietermaritzburg. The writer now presents statistics relating to adult education centres in Kwa Zulu.

TABLE 9 : STATISTICS ON ADULT EDUCATION CENTRES

Statistics on Adult Education Centres of the Department of Education and Culture, Kwa Zulu, as at the end of March 1982.

Regions	Circuits	General Centres			Teacher upgrading centres		
		No. of Centres	No. of Tutors	No. of Students	No. of Centres	No. of Tutors	No. of Students
I	Umlazi South	6	27	318	-	-	-
	Umlazi North	11	50	574	1	10	277
	Kwa Mashu	5	69	673	1	13	200
	Umbumbulu	2	14	207	3	14	160
	TOTALS	24	160	1772	5	37	637
II	Inkanyezi	2	7	85	2	7	80
	Mehlesizwe	4	18	203	1	3	30
	Enselemi	1	7	106	1	3	34
	Hlabisa	-	-	-	3	10	234
	TOTALS	7	32	394	7	23	378
III	Edendale	1	16	115	1	5	40
	Mpumalanga	2	8	102	3	45	330
	TOTALS	3	24	217	4	50	370
IV	Mnambithi	2	12	65	3	26	222
	Bergville	1	10	44	1	6	40
	TOTALS	3	22	109	4	32	262
V	Madadeni	3	18	275	2	20	307

Source : Department of Education and Culture, Kwa Zulu :  
"Adult Education", March 1982, p. 3.

The above table shows the structure of Adult Education in Kwa Zulu. Circuits are divided into five regions.

The Department of Education and Culture has already appointed five area principals for the five regions. Their function is to supervise adult education centres locally. They are also responsible for creating awareness of adult classes in the community. Their other function is to promote literacy classes and teacher upgrading classes in the various circuits. There are to date three concerns of adult education centres in the region namely, literacy, general education and teacher upgrading. In most of the general centres, literacy classes are also held. Each type will now be discussed.

#### 2.2.1 Literacy centres

At these centres, illiterate adults are taught to read and write Zulu and elementary English. The technique used to teach adults at those centres is different from that used at schools for full-time children. The tutors at the centres are trained by Operaton Upgrade of Southern Africa. The "Laubach Method" is used and this technique is used to teach illiterates in the shortest possible time to read and write Zulu and basic English.

Fifty teachers from ten circuits were trained in the Operation Upgrade technique in 1981. Some of these teachers have already started literacy centres for illiterate adults in their circuits. Another fifty teachers from circuits that did not send teachers for Operation Upgrade training in 1981 will be trained in 1982.

It is hoped that in 1983 there will be at least a hundred teachers who will have acquired this technique and who will be running literacy centres in Kwa Zulu, especially in rural areas.

#### 2.2.2 General Adult Education Centres

These centres are established for all members of the community, e.g. clerks, nurses, policemen and the general public. They are found mainly in peri-urban circuits where congested, diversified communities live. Some of these centres cater for interests ranging from literacy to Standard Ten. In the past, the Department has only been subsidising Standard Eight and Standard Ten tutors. It is only recently that some literacy centres have been subsidised.

Teachers in the adult classes are teachers who are in full-time employment in the day schools drawing their normal salaries. For teaching in the adult classes they are paid five rand an hour by the Department of Education and Culture and nine rand per hour by the Department of Education and Training. Kwa Zulu only pays those teachers who teach the literacy and Standard Eight and Ten classes. Adult education centres which are under the direction of the Department of Education and Training are controlled direct from Pretoria and they are found only in the white areas.

### 2.2.3 Teacher Upgrading Centres

These centres are meant exclusively for teachers who do not possess Standard Ten academic qualifications. These centres function during hours suitable for teachers mainly during the afternoon shortly after schools have closed. In 1981, circuit inspectors were directed to establish these centres at strategic points in the circuits so as to make it convenient for teachers from all parts, especially those without matriculation to be able to attend.

Adult education in Kwa Zulu is poorly financed. As a result of this, not all the adult centres are subsidised. Even in cases



which are subsidised, teachers are badly paid, resulting in a very unstable teaching force. The Department of Education and Training pays all its teachers, from those who teach the literacy classes up to those who deal with Standard Ten whereas in Kwa Zulu only Standard Eight and Ten teachers are paid, and then not in all the centres.

In some areas of Kwa Zulu teachers engage in a form of voluntary service in tutoring adults. In some instances the students themselves must raise money to pay the teachers. The problem of dual control affects all facets of Black education as can be noted in the differences in the operation of adult education between Kwa Zulu and the (Natal) Department of Education and Training. The other problem is that in adult education centres the students are employed and mature people. Most are married with family commitments. The students in this case do not only have to attend to improving their education, they have a number of other duties calling their attention. This results in irregular attendance. At times a student's attendance may be affected by the shift system in his employment situation making it difficult to attend classes regularly.

Other problems in the adult education centres are that students themselves pay one rand per quarter in the literacy classes and two rand per subject per year in the Standard Eight and Ten classes. This money is supposed to be used for buying the basic requirements for the adult centre, e.g. chalk. In order to pay the tutors who are not subsidised by the Department, students pay more than the required sum. This causes problems as adults are often also paying towards the education of their children.

Students and tutors also have transport problems. As classes are held in the evening, most students and tutors have no cars and travelling in the evening is not safe in the townships. Some of the adult education centres have no electricity and in some instances gas lamps and candles are used and this causes reading problems.

Some comparisons which the present writer observed during a visit to Britain are important at this point : The teachers, first of all, need to be orientated towards the teaching of adults. School teachers are not necessarily the best teachers of adults. In 1976 it was discovered that about 3 000 000 people in Britain had problems of illiteracy. Many volunteers came forward to

teach. Problems arose because though some of the volunteers were professional teachers, they had no training in teaching adults.

A Strategy For the Basic Education of Adults (1979)  
notes

"The literacy campaign - has demonstrated the existence of a substantial section of the population, estimated at more than three million who are severely disadvantaged by lack of basic educational skills." (p. 6).

The literacy campaign relied heavily on volunteer tutors. A Strategy for the Basic Education of Adults further points out that

"The effectiveness of volunteers depends on careful recruitment and selection, on adequate training, on regular monitoring and on continuing support." (p. 38).

The Natal/Kwa Zulu Adult Basic literacy programmes lack all the above advantages.

The attitude of the students in Natal/Kwa Zulu also causes problems. Some students particularly in the Standard Eight and Ten classes take too many subjects and think that passing will be easy. They get distracted absent themselves from classes and then fail at the end of the year. The new arrangement of having private candidates writing their examinations in May-June is still causing confusion. The school calender for adult

students is still not well-defined and thus proper planning cannot be done.

The Urban Foundation Education Fact Sheet No. 2 has the following to say on Teacher Upgrading Programmes and Teacher Readiness:

"Interest and enthusiasm is one thing - ability or capability is another." (p. 3).

Most of the teachers in Kwa Zulu, averaging roughly 35 years of age or more, completed Junior Certificate many years before - some in the 1940's or 1950's - and have never studied since.

The fact sheet argues that

"A bridging course of a year's duration at least in junior certificate and first year senior certificate is essential." (idem).

A bridging course may for instance follow the pattern of the Teachers' Assistance programme in Pietermaritzburg which is a single course in English communication. Mentor (1982) points out that "The aim would be the improvement of language skills." (p. 102). This would enable the students to tackle the other subjects they wish to write with some prospect of success.

Teachers have a full teaching day and then have to commute in some cases long distances to adult education centres, and finally travel back home late in the afternoon or evening. This is a considerable hardship especially for working mothers. Over 90% of teachers who are studying are married women. The above problems result in irregular attendance, late arrivals, neglect of homework and other consequences which affect their education.

The main difficulties in organising proper programmes are lack of suitably qualified tutors. Even where tutors from other race groups are available, they have to travel long distances into the townships. On account of these several problems an adult student must be highly motivated and be prepared to work hard in order to succeed in his course of study. Adult students have a very limited time at classes as they occupy only two hours per day from Monday to Thursday. Tutors in adult education centres have to identify the problem areas of the subject, as it would be impossible for them to cover the whole syllabus if they were to handle the subject, as in a formal school situation. The students usually study on their own the easier parts of the syllabus.

### 3. OPERATION UPGRADE OF SOUTHERN AFRICA

Operation Upgrade of Southern Africa is an incorporated association and it is registered under the Companies Act. Its headquarters are in Durban, with branches in Cape Town, Pretoria and Johannesburg.

The aims of Operation Upgrade as cited in the Annual Report (1980) are to upgrade literacy by :

- "(1) Training teachers to teach illiterate adults;
- (2) Training writers to write materials for neo-literate adults;
- (3) Publishing simple self-help books for new readers, which will encourage a love of reading and at the same time help them in their daily life."

(p. 2).

Operation Upgrade has a Director and a team of tutors as well as an administrative staff. There is also a Board of Governors and an advisory Committee. The 1980 Annual Report cites several organizations as having contributed financially to the running of Operation Upgrade, including

The South African Sugar Association;  
 The Church of Swedish Mission;  
 I.B.M. South Africa;  
 Metal Box of South Africa;  
 D.G. Murray Trust and  
 Goldfields of south Africa.

The training fee for students from Industry is two hundred and ten rand, which includes a consultancy fee and text books. Operation Upgrade maintains contact with the teacher through reports and the tutors give advice when required. Bursaries are given to individuals who are sponsored by the church, welfare or educational

organisations. As a result of 69 training courses held during 1980, 824 literacy teachers were trained in South Africa. Operation Upgrade teaches in nine languages : English, Afrikaans, Zulu, Shosa, Tswana, Sepedi, Sotho, Venda and Tsonga.

In countries where there is mass illiteracy one finds low standards of living, hunger and a high birth-rate. Operation Upgrade in South Africa stresses that the attainment of literacy should be the first step in a programme towards the full development of adults who are illiterate. Methods are based on those first developed by Laubach. The back cover of the book Forty Years with the Silent Billion, put out by the organisation reads, "Frank C. Laubach is one of the noblest human beings of our time." Laubach's missionary career began in the Phillipines in 1915. The source adds :

"A year later he worked out the first edition of the now world famous picture-word literacy charts and in 1930 originated the volunteer method of promoting literacy known as 'each one teach one'".

The methods are intended to meet the needs in a practical and constructive way. Training is given in the presentation of technical material. This is done in a factual and easily understood way. Manuals for operating machines, instruction booklets for workers, safety instructions, first aid, Bible study courses, basic health information and good farming practices are among

the topics which the students are taught to read. The material helps neo-literates to develop gradually, and is helpful in achieving the goals of functional literacy.

Operation Upgrade in South Africa was launched in 1966. In 1968, with the co-operation of the Department of Education and Training and the Zulu Language Committee a start was made in the research and preparation of Zulu Language charts, Primers and Readers. In 1970, the First Teacher Training Course was held at Lamontville night school in Durban.

In 1972 the Durban Municipal Service Commission recognised Operation Upgrade of Southern Africa Literacy Certificates as the equivalent of a Standard Four certificate for employment grading and payment purposes. In 1978 Teacher Training courses were started for the staff members of the Psychiatric Rehabilitation Centres, Tuberculosis and other hospitals throughout the Republic. Operation Upgrade has one training centre in Durban.

A news letter for the Adult Literacy Teachers' Association of South Africa (1980) notes that it has been estimated that 55,3% of the Black population in South Africa remains illiterate (p. 1). There is also the problem of functional illiteracy as Hartshorne (1975) points out in his address on The Possible Causes and Remedies for the High Drop-out Rate in Black Schools.



He says

"The minimum requirement of four years schooling to achieve literacy is rather low, even though with sufficient stimulus the level of literacy may improve after leaving school at this stage. But a rural person with no stimulus regresses after this." (p. 10).

The problem of literacy is common not only with Africans but it is also found amongst Indians. Some of the type of jobs done by these race groups may also not encourage retention of literacy, e.g. street cleaning. This situation illustrates that the bulk of the Black population in South Africa remains illiterate and in spite of the fact that Operation Upgrade is making an effort, it merely scratches the surface. Further, no effort on a national level is made in South Africa to eradicate illiteracy as one would find in some countries, e.g. Kenya and Tanzania. In most countries stamping out illiteracy is a national effort which is undertaken at government level. In fact illiteracy is nowadays regarded as a disease which must be eradicated. Various media are employed in the effort, e.g. radio and television. This is not the case in South Africa.

Whilst appreciating the efforts of Operation Upgrade in assisting the illiterate to attain a state of literacy it seems that this should be accompanied by development to full humanity, a process which Paulo Freire describes as "humanization". Freire (1972) argues that

"In order to achieve humanization, which presupposes the elimination of dehumanization and oppression, it is absolutely necessary to surmount the limiting situations in which men are reduced to things." (p. 93).

Thus it may be concluded that literacy programmes should be accompanied by programmes leading to greater general awareness. Literacy should not only be geared towards making people more productive in industry. It seems that in South Africa, illiterates are felt to be a hindrance to productivity and their education is motivated by a need for more profit.

Echoing these sentiments, Ellis (1981) cites a 1975 systematic literacy campaign in Guineau Bissau. Ellis argues that the campaign proved less successful "Until the learning of words such as Struggle, Unity, Land, Work and Production were coupled with reflection on the concrete situation and daily programmes." (p. 6). The Guinean example touches the heart of a literacy campaign. The operation upgrade example lays stress on evangelization i.e. the ability to read the Bible and accepts the accumulation of material goods by those in charge of industry. It has no relevance to liberation and freedom which are some of the major concerns of a literacy programme as viewed by Paulo Freire.

#### 4. THE DOMESTIC WORKERS AND EMPLOYERS PROJECT

The Domestic Workers and Employers Project works for the opportunities of domestics to improve their service conditions and towards the improvement of the relationship between worker and employer. The upliftment of the domestic worker is the aim of the organisation. The Domestic Workers and Employers Project organises centres of concern where domestics can come in during their leisure time. Here they learn skills such as sewing, knitting, cooking, typing and literacy.

In the centres of concern, literacy teaching is encouraged. Teachers' training courses are conducted. Centres stock Zulu and English literature books of the Bureau of Literacy and Literature, and of Learn and Teach. Those who teach are trained Zulu Literacy Teachers in terms of the requirements of the Bureau for Literacy and Literature. (The Bureau for Literacy and Literature is a private organisation operating more or less on the same basis as Operation Upgrade but based in the Transvaal). Although the Domestic Workers and Employers Project has made a valuable contribution, a Unesco Publication "Literacy 1969 - 1971" asserts that "for a literacy programme to affect habits and traditions it must be oriented towards and integrated with a broad programme of adult education." (p. 38). The publication "Literacy 1969 - 1971" further asserts that "the adult should be the subject of his education." (idem). This suggests that the adult illiterate is to be enabled to achieve a critical awareness of his situation whilst in the process of learning

to read and write. The present writer agrees that literacy campaigns should accordingly be coupled with conscientization and some degree of political awareness so that they achieve their true purpose.

##### 5. THE VALLEY TRUST

The Valley Trust is a socio-medical project aimed at the promotion of health among rural people. It is situated at Botha's Hill 30 km inland from Durban. The Valley Trust occupies approximately 100 sq. miles and serves a population of about 67 000 people. These people are at Emolweni, Nyuswa, Embo, Mfolozi and Maqadini. These are all rural areas. Its main object is to promote the health and well-being of the local people.

On how to achieve a programme of social change, Rogers (1982) asserts that

"Starting with the existing state of any group of persons, the first stage is to arouse awareness, and with it concern for social action. The second stage is to encourage people to acquire the necessary skills, knowledge and understanding." (p. 30).

This confidence would enable people to involve themselves fully in a course of social action, including decision-making and in the end (argues Rogers), "This will lead to social change." (p. 30). The above sentiments qualify the Valley Trust as an agent to influence the lives of the people concerned.

Some of the aims of the Valley Trust are

- (1) To devise, formulate and impart principles of guidance which although designed to promote the health and wellbeing of the local Zulu community, may be applied or adapted generally to any community;
- (2) To co-operate with official and private bodies whose objectives are in accordance with the character and functions of the organization.

Sources of finance include grants from Oxfam and The South African Sugar Association. At the Valley Trust there is a medical service with a clinic. Nurses in attendance are qualified in general nursing and midwifery. In addition to health services, the Valley Trust provides education in nutrition by fully qualified nurses and a cook-demonstrator. The co-operation of nurses in awakening patient interest in correct diet is fundamental to the success of the nutrition education programme. This programme has as its basic aim the establishment of co-operation between doctor, nurse, nutrition educator, agricultural demonstrator and members of the community. All of these aim to help the simple rural people in becoming enlightened about the need for vegetable gardens and healthy eating habits. In addition to nutrition education, three other courses are offered at the Valley Trust; however, the Valley Trust does not offer qualifications or diplomas and as such follows the

tradition of non-formal education. What is offered is the opportunity for interested persons to observe the work at close quarters and to appreciate the results that are obtained. The three training courses offered are for State Registered nurses, for teachers, clergymen, welfare workers and health educators and thirdly for gardener trainees. At the Valley Trust the essential features of non-formal education in practice can be observed.

The 1980 Annual Report of the organisation asserts that "area visits by nutrition educators are part of the Valley Trust overall research programme." (p. 17). Latest studies taken in conjunction with the dramatic drop in the number of cases of Kwashiokor at the Health Centre over the past 15 years indicate that there has been a change for the better. One of the motivating factors towards the establishment of the Valley Trust was that despite treatment, children again suffered from Kwashiokor because of bad eating habits and poor nutrition on returning to their uneducated families. On results of the Valley Trust, the 1980 report reads,

"Various studies reported in 1979 present an extremely encouraging picture with regard to the health of the children of the community." (p. 17).

The 1980 Annual Report further declares that

"An encouraging aspect of this work of the agricultural section is the continued establishment of gardens without aid from the Valley Trust, due in large measure to the natural diffusion of our ideas." (p. 14).

This shows that the members of the community are now gradually becoming aware of the importance of vegetable gardens.

The Valley Trust projects cover education, agriculture, literacy, technology and health. The Annual Report points out that "This indicates the multidisciplinary aspects of the project aimed at the total health of rural people in the broadest sense." (p. 18). The present writer feels that the Valley Trust is making a valuable contribution towards the development of a rural community and this is an important feature of adult education.

Whittaker (1980) points out that "The project has operated for twenty-nine years and marked changes have taken place in the health of the people." (p. 30). He sums it up aptly by saying

"The natural pace of social change is slow. Recognising this, progress with health care projects must be assessed in years or decades - not weeks or months." (idem).

Thus some of the successes of the Valley Trust will take time to be proved concretely.

## 6. DIAKONIA

Diakonia is a Project of Christian Churches in the Greater Durban area. The purpose is to further the churches' efforts towards establishing better human relations in the industrialised society in Durban.

Rogers (1982) asserts that

"The most secure route to achieve social change is one which places a full programme of adult education at the heart ... The new model of development is one which sees the people who are in need as being oppressed i.e. denied access to resources which exist." (p. 30).

It would appear that Diakonia helps to meet the above exigencies, and to lead to a programme of growth.

The involvement of the church in politics is an area of concern in South Africa. The activities of Diakonia in this regard may actually bring it into disrepute among some. This is one of the arguments advanced by critics of Diakonia. However it should be understood that it seems to be one of the basic function of the Christian church to align itself with the oppressed and the suffering, which usually means taking a political stand.

In the South African context, characterised by inequalities, Blacks are deprived of some resources and whites are better placed and more privileged. Diakonia responds to this situation. Pualo Frère argues that



"The Pedagogy of the oppressed is an instrument for their critical discovery that both they (the oppressor) and their oppressors are manifestations of dehumanization." (p. 32).

Diakonia and its programmes may be seen to constitute an exercise towards the humanization of both Blacks and Whites.

Rogers (op.cit.) regards a programme of adult education as a most secure route to social change. Against this he cites a political route which is "The route of revolution and riots, arousing awareness and proceeding at once to action." (p. 30). This he argues will bypass the educational programme of developing skills, knowledge and understanding.

On the other hand the 1982 Diakonia Annual Report declares,

"The role of Diakonia as an organisation is to emerge more clearly as a catalyst and resource agency which provides training and resources to Christians." (p. 1).

According to a publication "Diakonia" (1975), Diakonia is the Greek word for service. In choosing this name, it was considered that south Africa is a country where many languages are spoken so a name not closely linked with any of these was chosen. Diakonia aims to help churches, for example, to analyse and understand the

causes of social problems in the Greater Durban area. It also hopes to develop response to these problems and to encourage collaboration in their solution. The programme is drawn up by a Director and assistant organisers.

More than 75% of Diakonia's finances come from overseas, especially from Misereor in Germany. Misereor is a Christian movement which donates money to church agencies. In addition, the following overseas agencies make contributions: Oxfam (U.K.), Trocaire (Ireland), Development and Peace (Canada), and Propagation of Faith (Holland). The remaining 25% of funds come from contributions made by local member churches, from associate members and various other donations. The fund are audited annually and the audited statements presented to the executive and the council members.

Included in the areas of coverage are the following programmes and courses :

#### 6.1 Black Development Programme :

This concentrates on trying to build a greater degree of self reliance in the Black community. There are seminars, courses and workshops which are conducted in English and Zulu.

The Annual Report (1982) reads)

"A highly successful course in community organisation was held at Marrianhill Mission Centre during August. Over 40 people from Umlazi, Kwa Mashu, Lamontville, St. Wendelins, Newlands East and Reservoir Hills attended." (p. 3).

The report does not give details of the course.

## 6.2 A White Development Programme

In encouraging a greater awareness of how Christian beliefs need to be brought to bear upon South African society, this programme encourages widespread knowledge among all Christians. The (1982) Annual Report notes that

"In September a weekend course with the above title was held at St. Dominic's Retreat centre for twenty participants. The aim of the course was to suggest to participants various kinds of action in which they could be involved."

## 6.3 Housing Programme

Diakonia takes a particular interest in housing problems and the many other social problems found in squatter areas and townships.

## 6.4 Church and Industry

This programme concentrates on the church and workers. It is intended to make the churches minister to workers in a more relevant way. It has been decided to evolve a common church policy on labour matters. This will be developed in consultation with church leaders, workers and trade unionists.

### 6.5 Communication Programme

The general aim of this programme is to ensure that all Diakonia publications are as graphic as possible. This will assist the other programmes to devise the best ways of communicating.

All Diakonia's programmes are essentially centred on adult education. They are basically intended to urge people to adopt a critical view of their situation. In South Africa as Ellis (1981) argues, there is "A First World and Third World existing alongside each other." (p. 8). This is the case in all aspects of South African life. The (1982) Annual Report of Diakonia says that Diakonia attempts

"To undertake creative actions which will reshape society so that it recognises the God-given dignity and rights of every person." (p. 1).

The different programmes attempt to reshape South African society.

Rogers (op.cit.) declares,

"A more secure route to change places a full programme of adult education at the heart." (p. 30).

As some of these programmes may not be undertaken by the government, it is the church which has to do something about the situation.

## 7. INKATHA

Inkatha is a non-violent National Cultural Liberation Movement, founded in 1928 by King Solomon Ka Dinizulu. Willmer (1981) points out that, "In May 1975, Chief Buthelezi of the Zulus announced the revival of Inkatha Yenkululeko Yesizwe." (p. 3). The major objectives in reviving Inkatha were, argues Willmer (op.cit.)

"To foster unity and commonality amongst Blacks across south Africa. The Constitution of the movement lists as objectives the need to break down social and ethnic barriers." (p. 4).

In August 1978, Inkatha unveiled for the first time its blueprint for South Africa. Willmer (op.cit.) points out that key aspects of the plan include universal suffrage and a new agricultural policy based on distribution of land where peasant collective farms would operate alongside Western type farms. (p. 5).

Inkatha has a very close link with the Kwa Zulu Government as can be observed in the structure of the movement. The Chief Minister is the President of Inkatha and the Minister of Education and Culture is the Secretary General of the movement. Inkatha is actively involved in fostering communication and community education through various channels, some of which will be discussed.

### 7.1 Bureau of Community Development

This was established by the Chief Minister as an agency of Inkatha in July 1980. It is run by a director and an adult education field officer. The latter's duties cover the running of community awareness programmes in which communities are involved in debates about local problems and in deciding how to pool their resources in the solution of problems. Awareness programmes culminate in community projects embarked upon by communities themselves. The following community programmes are planned: firstly those concerned with human development, including discussion of market co-operatives and credit unions; also included under this heading is training in the management of co-operatives.

Next, there are specific projects like the building of irrigation canals, simple roads and bridges and fences. The role of the Bureau is to encourage communities to make use of their group action potential, and where necessary to advise the government in areas where government assistance is essential. From its inception, the Bureau conducted a full adult education programme, including the creation of awareness in particular districts. In one such district, known as "Simdlangentsha" the members of communities are showing a very health response. The following is an outline of what has occurred, up to 1981. The community has managed to pool together R14 000 towards establishing a

marketing co-operative. Another community is establishing a Savings and Credit Co-operative, and the amount of R200 has been pooled together so far.

In a nearby area women have formed a Produce Co-operative Society through which they share skills and produce items such as handcraft and clothing. These they can sell locally and some of the products are sold through the Inkatha Development office. These women are receiving training in order to set their own co-operatives operating properly. In addition there is an agricultural co-operative which is being formed. At present it has R2 400.

## 7.2 Literacy Programmes

Many branches of Inkatha run literacy programmes for those who cannot read and write. The Youth Brigade of Inkatha is largely involved in these programmes.

## 7.3 Job Creation Programmes

As a result of the drought which was experienced in 1981 Inkatha, in partnership with the government of Kwa Zulu, has involved itself in programmes aimed at creating jobs for the starving population. For this purpose employment agencies are also encouraged to give priority to activities related to labour problems.

#### 7.4 Scholarships

With the limited financial resources contributed by the people, Inkatha also provides annual scholarships to Black university students studying at the Universities of Zululand, Fort Hare and the University of the North. These scholarships are not restricted to members of Inkatha nor to Zulu students.

The Bureau is busy with the implementation of the Youth Service Corps Project. For this project a farm across the White Umfolozi River has been made available together with an amount of R2,5 million. the Bureau, alongside Inkatha, is progressing with the Project. Projects are mostly economic but they serve a very useful function in non-formal community education and development. Yet another area of concern of the Bureau is a community training centre, which has been established to enable members of the community to train in certain skills e.g. agricultural activities and better farming methods. Leaders are drawn from different communities to acquire the skills of leadership in the fields of co-operatives and credit unions.

Inkatha is also concerned in political liberation and much of its educational effort is directed towards this end, in the teaching of UBuntu Botho or Good Citizenship. The syllabus reads :



"The practical step of introducing this subject in schools is a basic step to train youth for nationhood service, devotion and commitment." (p.1).

It can thus be asserted that political education is one of the areas which Inkatha feels it has to attend to in the training of the youth. In spite of political liberation and in spite of available arable land, many Third World countries continue to import even their basic staple food, and Inkatha hopes eventually to eliminate the need for this in Kwa Zulu so that self-development and self-reliance will occur.

Another development is the so-called "green revolution". In this revolution the aim is that the people should learn to feed themselves. Through its branches all over the country, Inkatha has encouraged its members to plant vegetable gardens so as not to depend on city markets only. This programme is in line with the self-reliance attitude and goes hand in hand with efforts to improve home industries among women.

The present writer feels that to a very large extent the Inkatha movement has succeeded in foster unity not only amongst Zulus but also beyond tribal lines. There are many non-Zulus who are members of Inkatha. The Inkatha syllabus for schools and

*Twaddell!*

the Youth Brigade are making a contribution towards nation building and thus encouraging political awareness in the youth. The Inkatha programmes are generally geared towards the development of the communities and this is an important aspect of adult education

#### 8. THE SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The organisation known as Sached, was founded by a group of concerned people comprising church leaders and academics. These people were reacting to the Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953 which lowered the standard of education for Blacks in South Africa. This legislation was followed by the Extension of University Education Act No. 44 of 1959. Both Acts seriously affected the Education opportunities for Blacks in South Africa. With the passing of the Extension of University Education Act which in effect, as Malherbe (1977) argues, "did not extend but instead seriously limited non-white students' choice of a University", it became clear that the universities of inter alia Cape Town and the Witwatersra would be closed to Black students. The South African Council for Higher Education was started in order to help students who wished to graduate through the University of London. Students were given bursaries which paid their fees and bought their books. In addition, students received tutorials and lectures from voluntary teachers. The programme continued for twelve years. During that time the South African Council for

Higher Education was a small organization with offices in Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban. Most of the work was done on a voluntary basis.

During the late 1960's, it became clear that the Sached Project was of limited success. Before students could start with the London degree, they had to study for their G.C.E. A-Level examinations to obtain entry to studies for the degree, thus involving themselves in a minimum of six years of study. Most students took much longer than this period and very few passed the final examinations. At the same time, a number of students were asking why there was no assistance for students of the University of South Africa. It was decided that it would be more useful to switch the programme to helping such students. From that time bursaries were awarded to University of South Africa students and tutorials were arranged for them. At about the same time it became clear that students had great difficulties. Two major difficulties were :

- (1) The poor standard of English taught in Black Schools made studying English difficult for University students.
- (2) The school system for Blacks did not prepare them adequately for university study.

To help students, the South African Council for Higher Education decided that it was necessary to work at both secondary school and University level, but only among

persons who had left school. This meant that the best thing to do would be to start a non-commercial correspondence college for adults who wanted to study towards Junior Certificate and matriculation levels : Turret College was started and from this beginning the other projects of the Sached Trust grew.

At present, the ages of Sached students range from 18 - 44 with women slightly in the majority. Drop-out rates vary but do not seem to be above 2% among Bursary students, indicating a high level of commitment. An average of 62% of those preparing for University of South Africa examinations have passed in about the last four years.

In the 1980 Annual Report of Sached, Annexure C, is the following statement of policy.

"The Sached Trust was established to provide a stable, and flexible educational nucleus equipped to contribute to the growing and changing needs of a growing and changing South Africa. To assist change for a better equitable South Africa, given the present complex situation, is a challenge open to many interpretations."

The viewpoint of Sached is that change can be assisted by providing opportunities for Black adults to gain skills and awareness of their surroundings and facilitating whenever possible the growth of community initiative. Sached's perspective is not that of assisting the underprivileged, it wishes rather to provide resources

which allow for independent self-help. At the same time educational efficiency must not be lost. The trust attempts to demonstrate the efficiency and cheapness of distance learning systems. Rather than requiring people to go to a centre of learning, a distance learning system reaches people where they are. It also encourages students to become independent learners.

In 1977, the activities of the Trust directly reached some 2 000 students excluding a newspaper programme. This programme, called People's College, was an experiment on publishing different subjects through the mass media. The career newspaper "World" was used for this purpose. The programme ceased to function when the newspaper was closed down by the government in November 1977. The career newspaper had gained popularity in Black schools because the different subjects discussed in the paper also helped day school students. The newspaper was also useful as it was an attempt to minimise problems of distance learning. Sached now operates from three centres, in Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg and employs a staff of 90. The Trustees decide the broad policy and what new projects should be started. Each centre has a Director with a staff.

Sached gets no state subsidy. The funds come from corporate fund raising. Some of the Sached programmes are fully funded, e.g. the development of study material

which is subsidized by the Anglo American Corporation. Students pay towards some of the cost of the projects e.g. the commercial education programme. For students registered with the Turret Correspondence College, fees are as follows : If a student is studying two subje

- (1) payment is R70,00 cash or R35,00 deposit and R11,70 for three months;
- (2) For three subjects, payment is R100,00 cash or R35,00 deposit and R16,50 for 4 months;
- (3) For four subjects payment is R120,00 cash or R35,00 deposit and R17,00 for 5 months;
- (4) The present UNISA fees are R130,00 per subjec

Some of the Sached Projects and Characteristics will now be considered.

#### 8.1 Student Recruitment and Support

Towards the end of every year a student recruitment campaign is launched. This takes the form of advertisements in a variety of local and national newspapers and magazines. Churches and welfare agencies are also used. The larger African parishes are visited to explain the project. The use of parishes has however had very limited succes

At university level, Sached has a Bursary Project for which students are recruited. This is a year-long supportive programme followed by studen

registered at University. It includes books, tutorials, library facilities, skills programmes and limited financial assistance to students. The programme runs from January to the start of examinations each year. Under the guidance of suitably qualified tutors, students meet weekly in each course for group discussions. Throughout the year skills courses are conducted to help students with their studies. Included in the skills course are topics like "How to research an essay", "How to read with understanding" and a system of preparation for examinations.

Students who come for assistance are mainly nurses, teachers and articled clerks. The project caters for Black adults intending to study with the University of South Africa. The students must be able to come to the centre in Durban. the centre operates from Monday to Saturday. Over the past years the Bursary Project has expanded considerably. The Table below illustrates this expansion.

TABLE 10 : BURSARY PROJECT STUDENTS 1973 - 1980

YEAR	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Students	10	46	42	63	95	70	78	165
Tutorial Groups	2	22	17	21	24	32	57	69

The above are students studying under the University of South Africa. Most of them get assistance either financially or with books.

## 8.2 Orientation

A variety of activities are arranged to introduce students to Sached. Social activities are held and these provide students with the opportunity to meet fellow students and the Sached staff. More formal orientations for new and old students are held. At these, students are introduced to Sached - the Trust and its projects, the Durban centre and staff. The Project and its activities are outlined and a calendar of events distributed.

Since libraries and in particular the Sached library plays an important role in the student's life, a library orientation seminar is run by one of the workers. Students are introduced to the purpose and mechanics of a library. Visual aids are obtained from the library of the University of Natal. To help students grasp the nature and function of a tutorial and a student's role in it, a discussion is held with the students.

## 8.3 Tutor Recruitment and Tutorial Policy

The recruitment drive is primarily directed at the University of Natal. Tutors are recruited for the main subjects, nursing, administration, community health, Sociology, Psychology, History, English, Economics and Business Economics. Sached' students who have already passed a subject also help as tutors.



The concept of group learning is the underlying principle of the tutorials. The aim is to facilitate this process and to introduce the students to the dynamics of groups. Group skills sessions aim to provide participants with an opportunity to understand better the concept of learning groups, to become aware of the dynamics present in the life of a group, to acquire the skills necessary to deal effectively with these dynamics in order to enrich the group and to maximize participation in the life of the group. As a way of satisfying their needs, the course focusses on the various theories of learning, the concept of group and task and maintenance functions. Group discussions aim to improve participation in tutorials. Tutorial discussions are based on group member functions and training for leadership. They encourage member roles in a tutorial. They are intended to initiate activity in a group, asking questions and analysing facts. Anybody who undergoes group training is presumably better able to work with groups. The activities described actually turn correspondence study into residential university study. This is of tremendous help particularly to Black students who come from deprived cultural backgrounds and a deficient education system.

#### 8.4 Extention Programmes

A research skills course is conducted to introduce students to complexities and mechanics

of researching an assignment. The course looks at analysing assignment topics, the collection of material, reading, note-taking, arguments, the planning and presenting of assignments and evaluation.

#### 8.5 Library Use

The project in Durban has a qualified librarian. This has resulted in the smooth and efficient operation of the library. Sached subscribes to a number of journals and receives journals donated by the British Council. These are in the field of commerce, nursing, science and education. A conscious effort is made to develop and balance library and reference material in all courses offered by the Project, and material related to the other Projects of the centre. Efforts are also made to make the public aware of the resources of Sached.

Evaluation constitutes a very important aspect of Sached. It is considered essential that the Project as a whole and the various elements individually should be evaluated annually. The aim of the evaluation is to discover the level of students participation, student and tutor preparation, tutorial methodology, the group dynamics and the extent to which the tutorials meet the objectives of academic exploration. Three areas of weakness are normally discovered in the evaluation - student preparation and participation,

the methodology used in the tutorials, and problems with group dynamics. All these indicate that while courses have been run in the areas concerned, single courses are insufficient and further consolidation and follow up to heighten Sached's need for a stable core of tutors is required.

#### 8.6 Student problems

In general, students attached to this organization experience particular problems. A questionnaire was administered by the present writer to 50 students of the Bursary Project of Sached with a view to establishing response and views. All these students were registered with the University of South Africa in 1981. The following is an analysis of the degrees for which the students were registered :

Bachelor of Arts	26
Bachelor of Administration	6
Bachelors Degree in Nursing	6
Bachelor of Commerce	5
Bachelor of Arts (SW)	4
Baccalaureus Procurationis	2
Diploma in advanced nursing Science	1

Occupations of respondents were as follows :

Teachers	23
Nurses	18
Clerks	6
Journalists	2
Driver	1

It is no longer easy for these students to pursue full-time education as most of them are adults, 23 were married, the rest either divorced or widows and 37 indicated that they had dependents.

These are some of the questions which students had to answer:

What course are you doing?

What was your aim in coming to this course?

What opportunities will this course open to you?

Do you find any problems in preparing your assignments?

List the particular problems you experience as a student at Sached.

A report on some of the answers now follow .

#### Problems the students have

The questionnaire revealed that the students had limited time for study and assignments because they were employed. They had insufficient tutorial and were unable to reach their tutors when they needed them. The Township environment was not conducive to study purposes. There were no librari

in townships, and books were expensive. A housewife with family responsibilities found it difficult to have time for assignments and for studying. Students found it difficult to study on their own with nobody to help. Some students had transport problems. Some students said they felt tired after work. In some cases the view was expressed that working hours were not conducive to study. This was particularly the case with nurses who at times worked at night. At times nurses were off from work only late in the evening. Some students had a language problem and as they worked alone and in isolation, they found it difficult to grasp and understand their study material. The University of South Africa had a different approach from that involved in matriculation, and this created a gap between the two levels.

The respondents cited these among the problems they experienced in their studies. It may be concluded that problems which students experience are basically problems of isolation. This means isolation from tutors and other students, resulting from lack of contact. This is a major feature of distance learning. Since quite a number of such students are from poor families and from townships they experience poor study facilities in their homes. As the students are products of Black schools

they need a lot of guidance and assistance on study methods and how to prepare assignments. Some students have inadequate finances to buy books. Due to the fact that these are mostly employed adults, most of them lack time to devote to studies. Sached caters for Black students and most of these students suffer from economic and cultural deprivation. These students are also products of a system of education which has over the years been characterised by a series of disadvantages, e.g. being poorly financed, having unqualified and underqualified teachers and generally poor school facilities. It would seem that these students need all forms of support and assistance in order to manage the demands of private study.

Regarding contact with past students, most students come back to Sached to tutor at least once a year. Old students are also invited to annual graduation ceremonies.

### 8.7 Types of Courses

The following are some of the courses undertaken in 1980. The Source is the 1981 Annual Report.

TABLE 11

NATURE	PLACE	DATE	PARTICIPANTS
Career guidance seminar 1 day	Clermont	07.01.80	45 matriculants
Group skills week end	Unisa students Sached	26.01.80 27.06.80	27 participants
Group Skills	Unisa students Sached	19.01.80 to 20.01.80	23 participants
Organisational skills : Types of leaders	Y.W.C.A Adams Mission	08.02.80	47 participants
Organisational skills. Types of leaders	Y.W.C.A. SOBANTU P.M. Burg	18.03.80 to 19.03.80	17 Participants 13
Listening and observation ideas idea on groups	Y Teens Leaders P.M. Burg	26.03.80	35 Participants
Group skills communication on listening & observation	Standard 5,6, and 8 students	07.05.80	25 participants

TABLE 12

NATURE	PLACE	DATE	PARTICIPANTS
Career information sessions	Ndwedwe	11,12,13 June	31 students Standards 7,8 & 10.
Introduction to community Development & Basic Human Relations	Appelsbosch	13.06.80 to 15.06.80	9 Acat field workers
Diakonia evaluation	Diakonia Durban	July to 29.08.80	35 participants
Durban community workers Forum	Sached offices	21.11.80	35 Participants Greater Durban and P.M. Burg
Leadership Course	Khayelihle Centre Umlazi		37 participants
Career Guidance	Ifafa South Coast	8,9,10 December	31 students High School and Jun. Sec. Students

TABLE 13

	NATURE	NO. OF PEOPLE	ACTION
Counselling	Financial and University Part-Time employers	67	Addresses given Referrals made Counselled and referred to other organisations, e.g. Black Sash
School Visits	Umlazi Umbumbulu Kwa Mashu Ndwedwe	6 2 2 3	
Correspondence	Bursaries/Finance Career Information Trades	23 33 6	Referred to all letters giving required information
	Others e.g. Drivers licence, studying matric. and J.C. as private candidates Financial help for lower classes	49	Explained what Sached is and the nature of its commitment to Black education.



## 9. CONCLUSIONS

The adult education centres in Natal/Kwa Zulu are useful as they may achieve much in eliminating illiteracy in the region. A further satisfactory feature of the adult education centres is to draw students from the ranks of manual workers so as to enable these people to lead fuller and better lives after benefitting from education. Brown (1980) cites Peers as follows :

"Adult education is needed, if those who belonged to an educationally underprivileged class were to consolidate their gains and to use wisely the political power to which they aspired." (p. 3).

Adult education can thus be regarded as a key to greater influence in public life. This makes it essential that education should be made available to everybody because education is the key to advancement. Agencies like The Valley Trust, Inkatha, Diakonia, and Sached have each a very important role in community development. With expert knowledge on the side of leaders of the organisations, adult education would benefit. Arising out of the present chapter, some specific recommendations are now made.

9.1 In Natal/Kwa Zulu efforts should be made to modernize the agricultural and rural sectors. Farmer training extension services and the training of rural leaders must be a major objective of non-formal education. In terms of the rural needs of Natal/Kwa Zulu one wonders whether some of the Tanzanian policy

of Education for self-reliance may not be explored. The policy followed in Tanzania has the following objectives, declares Coulson (1979): "Orientation of schooling to the rural areas and specifically to agriculture, the development of co-operative attitudes, critical thinking and self-confidence." (p. 219). This may lead rural people to realise the importance of cash crops and to use the soil beyond survival requirements. Some parts of Natal/Kwa Zulu are rural. Strategies towards rural development in the direction of agriculture should be explored. Such moves may improve the quality of life of rural populations and to some extent arrest the influx of rural populations to urban places.

9.2 Some form of co-ordination should also be made among the various agencies involved in community development so that their efforts are not duplicated. A central committee for instance representing the various agencies would be formed. expert knowledge in the various areas in adult education could be sought to guide such a committee. The needs of the different communities would thus be assured of proper guidance.

9.3 In order to improve non-formal education in developing countries more funds should be voted to non-formal education. Clear strategies should be adopted, good planning provided for, firm

priorities observed and workable administrative arrangements followed.

9.4 Industrialised and developing nations need to bring about a more effective relationship between formal and non-formal education. This would break down the wall between them. The Provision of Education in the R.S.A. Report (1981) points out that

"Provision of education in a modern society cannot be measured only in terms of formal provision." (p. 93).

Provision should be evaluated on the basis of both formal and non-formal education. Non-formal provision should be directed towards literacy, induction, inservice training, retraining, and support programmes. This arrangement would promote interaction between formal and non-formal education because each system would compliment the other.

9.5 Effective forms of research in adult education which is largely an unresearched sector of education particularly in South Africa, should be devised.

9.6 In Natal/Kwa Zulu institutions of Higher Education should encourage part-time studies so that people can improve themselves while at work. Students should also be reached by correspondence,

television or radio. These possibilities open the way to the continuance of education to full degree level for those who did not reach such levels before going to work.

9.7 It is important that several agencies both governmental and non-governmental should engage in adult education. It is through formal and non-formal education that rural populations can be expected to participate on improved farming practices and home improvement. It is when people's eyes are opened by education that their general quality of life is improved.

9.8 Agencies which are involved in adult education programmes in Natal/Kwa Zulu should aim at making the underprivileged come to a new awareness of themselves and to look critically at the social situation in which they find themselves. Friere (1972) argues that the oppressed should be enabled, "To take the initiative in acting to transform the society that has denied them this opportunity of participation." (p. 9). He further argues that "Education is once again a subversive force." (idem) The present writer submits that education and particularly adult education should be an agent for social transformation. Adult education programmes should be instrumental in changing the present social and political structures in Natal/Kwa Zulu,

as well as in the whole of South Africa. These are structures which inhibit the equal development of all race groups in the country.

In the next chapter, the writer concentrates specifically on the opportunities open to teachers for self-improvement.

## CHAPTER 4 : PRESENT TEACHER RESOURCES IN NATAL/ KWA ZULU AND THE NEED FOR UPGRADING

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Most Black teachers in Natal/Kwa Zulu have some kind of professional qualification but they have very low academic qualifications. In addition there are teachers who although they may have the required academic qualifications have no professional training.

Indian and White teachers, most of whom already had the basic academic qualifications when they trained as teachers, also need retraining and further education because changing society and other demands necessitate upgrading. For these reasons, it is clear that methods must be sought to upgrade and improve the standards of existing teachers, many of whom have had long professional experience but lack the minimum educational requirements particularly in Kwa Zulu.

This chapter attempts to indicate that for teachers education cannot be considered as something which ends on the attainment of a qualification. Changing society and other demands necessitate constant upgrading. In Natal/Kwa Zulu the different Departments of Education do offer a variety of programmes to upgrade and retrain their teachers. In this chapter provisions for inservice

training as well as teacher upgrading programmes in Natal/Kwa Zulu will be examined. Examples from Kenya and Nigeria will also be cited for purposes of comparison.

## 2. THE EXTENT OF THE NEED

A Unesco publication, Practical Guide to Inservice Teacher Training in Africa remarks :

"In all countries throughout the world, whatever system of education is in existence, teachers must be given continuing opportunities for learning."

This statement suggests that a single course of teacher training, however long or however excellent, no longer suffices in view of the radical changes taking place in society. In the area of formal education, declares Fafunwa (1967),

"Competent teachers are needed for nursery schools, elementary and secondary institutions, technical and vocational education as well as for teachers' colleges, and universities and, for adult education with its many facets." (p. 83).

Fafunwa further argues that

"A teacher must be carefully selected and trained, effectively inducted professionally encouraged through regular inservice training and adequately remunerated for his service to the nation." (p. 84).

The services of teachers are indispensable to a nation.

Unlike other professional groups, teachers influence the lives of a nation's youth and the future of the nation. Fufunwa presents a very valid argument by saying

"Poorly trained teachers will produce poorly trained doctors, lawyers, engineers, architects etc." (p. 84).

We find this state of affairs in Black education in South Africa. The quality of Black education is seriously affected by a large number of unqualified and poorly trained teachers. Teachers directly influence the quality and the quantity of service provided by all other trades and professions. Poor teachers tend to produce their own kind just as good teachers tend to reproduce their own kind.

Fafunwa (1967 p. 86) provides the following table which shows percentages of unqualified primary teachers in some African countries.

TABLE 14    PERCENTAGES OF UNQUALIFIED TEACHERS  
AT PRIMARY LEVEL

<u>COUNTRY</u>	<u>% OF UNQUALIFIED TEACHERS</u> <u>AT PRIMARY LEVEL</u>
Liberia	75 - 80%
Nigeria	75%
Guinea	45%
Niger	45%
Ghana	33%



<u>COUNTRY</u>	<u>% OF UNQUALIFIED TEACHERS AT PRIMARY LEVEL</u>
Southern Rhodesia	30%
Kenya	30%
Senegal	20%
Upper Volta	10%
Northern Rhodesia	24%

If the above position is true of teachers at the primary level one wonders how bad the situation is in the senior classes. If the teachers at the primary level are unqualified, it means that children make a very poor beginning and as such the intellectual level of a whole nation may be grossly affected.

With the present level of teacher qualifications in Africa, Kabwasa and Kaunda (1973) argue that

"One of the ways of improving an educational system is to concentrate attention and resources on the education of teachers where, hopefully the effect of this concentration can be multiplied." (p. 54).

The advantage of upgrading a teacher is that he touches the lives of many children over a period of years. If a teacher is well qualified, his influence will reach many students. The need to teach teachers is particularly striking in post-colonial Africa where demands for primary schooling have forced many countries into using underqualified and unqualified teachers.

In Kwa Zulu the position of teachers is not better than in other parts of Africa. The following figures are for all primary and high school teachers in Kwa Zulu. It should be noted that unqualified teachers are concentrated in rural areas e.g. uBombo has 48,30%, Nkandla 34,49% and Nongoma 31,68% whilst both Umlazi circuits have only 1,44% and 1,98% unqualified teachers Madadeni has 1,92% of such, and Kwa Mashu has 2%.

TABLE 15    EXTENT OF UNQUALIFIED TEACHERS IN KWA ZULU

Circuit	Unqualified	Qualified	Total	Percentage
	Teachers	Teachers		
Bergville	126	473	599	21
Edendale	17	829	846	2
Kwa Mashu	19	710	729	2
Madadeni	17	864	881	1,92
Mahlabanthini	127	431	558	22,75
Maphumulo	97	522	619	15,67
Mnambithi	56	596	652	8,58
Mpumalanga	44	742	786	5,59
Msinga	126	599	725	17,37
Mtubatuba	199	645	844	23,57
Mtunzini	54	651	705	7,65
Ndwedwe	49	800	849	5,77
Nkandla	168	319	487	34,49
Nongoma	244	479	707	31,68
Nquthu	133	793	906	12,47
Pholela	98	592	627	15,72
Port Shepstone	103	544	647	15,91
Ubombo	242	259	501	48,30
Mbumbula	31	690	721	4,29
Umlazi North	8	544	552	1,44
Umlazi South	11	543	554	1,98
Umzinto	57	586	643	8,86
Umzumbe	87	342	429	20,27
TOTALS:	2 073	13 489	15 562	13,32

Source : Minister of Education and Culture, Policy Speech 1979.

The problem of underqualified teachers is, however, often made significant than the problem of teachers without professional certificates. By underqualified teacher in South Africa is meant one lacking a Senior Certificate. Among Black teachers such underqualification affects over 80% of the teaching force.

Black education is the section which is most affected by problems of unqualified and underqualified teachers. The Report of the Main Committee of the H.S.R.C. Investigations into Education (1981) reads

"The critical shortage of professionally qualified teachers is one of the most serious problems confronting education in the R.S.A. The most pressing shortage of teachers in regard to both quality and quantity exists in schools for Blacks and Coloureds." (p. 60).

Inservice Training for Teachers is one of the ways in which teachers are upgraded. The next section will examine the reasons for and the methods used in upgrading teachers.

### 3. INSERVICE TEACHER TRAINING

Inservice Training is helpful in improving the teachers' efficiency in the classroom. Addressing the International Conference on the world crisis in Education in 1967, the Director General of Unesco is quoted by Kwa-basa and Kaunda (1973) as having said,

"If we want education to produce the sort of men and women that modern society needs, it is necessary to raise the general standard of the teaching staff and improve teacher training." (p. 55).

Education which is imparted by poorly qualified teachers is sure to produce grave disappointments.

It is widely agreed that Inservice Training can be of help and Inservice Training can take the following forms as recommended by Unesco (1970):

- (1) Refresher courses for inservice teachers, enabling them to adapt to new circumstances.
  - (2) Additional training for Teachers enabling them to acquire, more adequate professional qualifications.
  - (3) Further Training for Inservice teachers to enable them to rise to a higher professional standard which may imply a change of status.
- (p.28).

Most governments in Africa have understood the urge of giving complementary training to primary school teachers who are insufficiently qualified. According to Kabwasa and Kaunda (1973) inservice training takes three forms : Residential courses on a release basis; Vacation course during long vacation periods, and Inservice Training while the individual is performing his normal duties. Each form will now be briefly considered.

3.1 The Residential Training on release basis is usually provided at teacher training colleges or similar institutions. It has the advantage of involving the students in a full year of study. On account of the critical staffing shortage prevailing in most schools, and the difficulty of trying to arrange for any kind of replacement for teachers attending courses, as well as the few vacancies available each term at residential centres this scheme does not seem to be very effective.

3.2 Vacation courses are intensive training courses. Here again limitations of intake capacity cause problems. The costs involved in trying to provide the facility to large numbers of candidates have reduced the effectiveness of this approach. Over the last decade African countries have turned to correspondence education study as a solution. Correspondence study has the advantage that student can be trained on the job. Particularly, school teachers can be upgraded or retrained without leaving their classrooms for further full-time study.

Kabwasa and Kaunda (1973) point out that

"While a decade ago there were perhaps one or two African countries using correspondence education, a 1969 survey found some twenty-two had adopted correspondence education, of which eleven were operating courses for teacher training and upgrading." (p. 58).

Kabwasa and Kaunda refer to African countries but do not mention any specific country.

Nearer home, the University of South Africa runs distance education on a large scale for the general public and for teachers. The "Unisa Alumnus" July (1982) Vol. 4, No. 1 reads

"Since 1946 student numbers have increased from less than 1 000 students to approximately 60 000 at present." (p. 14).

The "Alumnus" further asserts that

"Thorough planning and projections indicate that more than 100 000 students will make use of Unisa facilities in the year 2000." (idem).

Apart from the University of South Africa there is a College of Education for Further training in Pietermaritzburg, and the Springfield College of Education upgrades teachers by correspondence. The Department of Education and Training also upgrades Black teachers by correspondence in Pretoria.

The advantage of correspondence tuition is the low unit cost, the possibility of bringing education to people residing in remote areas as well as the advantage of training a large number at the same

time. All these factors have acted favourably in the adoption of distance learning.

Stressing the need for continuing and further education, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1978), cites the following reasons for the growing importance of inservice education for teachers. "It is inherently important that teachers, of all people, should continue with their personal and professional education". The nature of present day rapid change which is technological, economic, cultural, social and political makes it imperative for education systems in general to modify their methods. Teachers in particular should review and modify teaching techniques and curricula to suit present needs. For these and other reasons, several countries have made moves to establish or rationalise planning and organisational arrangements for inservice education for teachers.

Inservice education for teachers includes updating teacher skills and knowledge. It may also involve improvement in qualifications and status. Inservice training in order to be effective should operate throughout a teachers career. Duminy (1972) maintains that

"There has been a phenomenal development in the field of technology and science during the last few decades, yet we do not always realise the significance of this statement for the school teacher." (p. 75).

There is a perpetual danger that education may lag behind, and the teacher is expected to keep abreast with development and adapt himself as well as his pupils to changes. Thus a need for retraining and upgrading is essential if the teacher is to meet the demands of the profession.

One conspicuous limitation, which in recent years has been widely publicised is the tendency for teacher education establishments to confine their attention to preservice courses. It has become generally recognised that teacher education must be conceived as an extended process. The preservice course in initial training and the staffs of teacher education institutions will be required in the future to assume wider responsibilities and to play a part in planning and providing a variety of inservice courses for practising teachers. Attention has been drawn to the special needs of newly qualified and inexperienced teachers. Even experienced teachers need programmes of retraining and further training.



Otto and Saunders (1964) further define inservice education as "The continued education of persons while they are inservice. Inservice training is a type of continual expert guidance of teachers which encourages them to seek greater competence in content and method and to increase efficiency. It could also be viewed as a programme through which conscientious teachers may remain students of teaching problems, and represents an opportunity for continuing professional and personal growth.

The present writer feels that with the knowledge explosion in recent years, even if preparation for a teachers career were adequate, the training becomes outdated in the space of a very short time.

Prior to the introduction of inservice training programmes, it was discovered that the preservice training of many teachers needed to be supplemented. In his publication on The Why of Inservice Education Programmes in the School, Chuenyane (1976) writes

"An inservice programme as a 'refresher to bring the teacher up to date, to stimulate the individual members of the staff to study or to inaugurate a new educational service was thought to be in order." (p. 4).

Inservice training for teachers is therefore essential in order to keep teachers up to date.

### 3.3 In-Service Training

In spite of formal academic training and long experience on the job, new demands for teachers make it necessary to organise programmes of study. Inadequacies particularly in Black Training Colleges, and the growing awareness of the complexity of teaching as well as the varied needs of teachers and students, make inservice education necessary in modern schools.

It may thus be concluded that while the basic reason for preservice professional education is to provide the prospective teacher with the knowledge, skills, techniques and attitudes necessary for initial service, there is constant need for their reinforcement through inservice training. Perhaps, argues Chuenyane (1976), "one of the most important attitudes to develop is the desire to learn to improve." (p. 5). Teachers who participate and get involved in inservice programmes are helped to develop self confidence. They are also assisted towards creative teaching.

The present writer will now examine existing opportunities for teacher upgrading (for all races) in Natal/Kwa Zulu. The College of Education for

Further Training will be the first to be examined

### 3.3.1 The College of Education for Further Training

This College is administered by the Natal Education Department and is situated in the Old Harward School Building in Havelock Road, Pietermaritzburg. It provides opportunities for further training for White and Coloured teachers resident in Natal.

Tuition is principally by correspondence. This is supplemented whenever possible by lectures, tutorials and interviews to ensure that communication between students and lecturers is not exclusively by the written word. A period of three weeks practical teaching is included. The work which is covered in one year by full-time college students is spread over at least two years for teachers studying part-time. The two full courses offered lead to diploma courses.

- (a) The Diploma in Education for the Primary school is a course for teachers with a recognised two year teaching diploma. In order to complete the course in the minimum period of two years, a student has to take three subjects per year. Students who wish

to take longer may do so by registering for only one or two subjects per year. Such extension of the time taken does not increase the fee payable for the course.

- (b) The Higher Diploma in Education for the Primary School is for teachers with one recognised three-year teachers' diploma. If successfully completed, this course improves a teachers' qualification to category D (M + 4). These students take four courses of which Education 2 is compulsory. In order to complete the course in the minimum period of two years, a student normally takes two subjects per year.

The College was opened in 1977 and the First Diplomas were awarded on the 1st February 1980. During the period 1980-81 the College upgraded a total of 483 teachers as follows :

	M + 3	Higher Diploma M + 4	Total
1980	88	245	333
1981	27	122	149
	<hr/> 115	<hr/> 367	<hr/> 483

Although the College has succeeded in upgrading a number of teachers, there have been problems experienced by the students. The present writ

interviewed the principal of the College, who cited some of these.

Common problems are those related to students' home and family adjustments. As the courses studied are done by correspondence and on a part-time basis, students have to organise their lives to suit conditions of work and study. Fortunately members of staff have themselves done part-time study, and thus students who normally come in a depressed state about their problems are counselled and encouraged by the lectures.

Contact teaching is also practised, thus the College supplements its correspondence tuition with two series of regional student meetings per year. Attendance at these meetings is not compulsory but contact gives students an opportunity of meeting lecturers personally. These visits according to the principal, are more psychological than academic in the sense that the students receive encouragement and support for their problems. Many students come to the meetings particularly those who have been away from formal study, doubting whether they can be able to cope with their work and still do their studies. As they are mature and usually highly motivated,

encouragement assists them to gain confidence. Problems of isolation are also solved by encouraging study groups, thus students taking the same subjects in the same area get together and form study groups and discuss their problems together.

The Division of Indian Education also offers programmes for upgrading teachers. The writer will now analyse a few of these programmes.

### 3.3.2 Department of Internal Affairs :

#### Division of Indian Education -

#### Inservice Teacher Education Programmes

According to a pamphlet of the Department of Internal Affairs (Division of Indian Education) on Inservice Teacher Education Programmes, The Division of Indian Education offers an extra mural two year part-time course. This course is for inservice teacher and leads to the qualification M + 3. The duration of the first course was between 1981/82 and only professionally qualified teachers in service who were graded "B" were eligible. Inservice teachers who qualified for regrading to category B after passing examinations at the end of 1980 could also be admitted. Teachers who wrote the supplement:

examinations at the beginning of 1981 could seek provisional admission.

Students who register for the primary course may choose a Humanities or Science direction. The Junior Secondary Education Diploma is also offered. Teachers who follow this course may take the science or commercial Direction.

Teachers enrol for the course and direction of study related to the phase in which they are presently teaching. It is only under special circumstances that teachers are permitted to enrol for courses or directions not related to their present teaching subjects. The college provides candidates with study guides. The guides include the syllabuses with instructional objectives and a list of available text and reference books for each subject. Another condition is that candidates are not required to submit assignments or attend seminars. They are also not supposed to satisfy D.P. requirements. The College provides no tuition whatsoever, the students being completely "external".

Students are advised that the College does not conduct any examination at the end of the first year of study. It is only at the end of the second year that candidates write examinations. Inservice teachers write the same final year examination as the internal students, at Springfield or the Transvaal College of Education. It is only under special circumstances that consideration is given to the establishment of other examination centres.

Another type of interesting teacher upgrading programme offered by the Division of Indian Education are short intensive courses. These courses are intended to offer some kind of further education to teachers. The motivation behind the introduction of these courses was the shortage of teachers qualified in particular areas. This occurred especially in scarce subjects at senior secondary level and the problem reached such proportion that the Division was forced to use unqualified teachers in increasing numbers to teach these subjects such as Afrikaans, Mathematics, Physical Science and Business Economics. The Department realised that the practice of using unqualified teachers to teach senior secondary subjects is educationally unsound and to the detriment of pupils. It was agreed



that short, intensive, one term classroom oriented courses in secondary subjects should be introduced. These courses would provide the most feasible solution to the problem. It was felt that these courses would be an extension of the present system of orientation courses.

Apart from the short one term intensive courses, the Department introduced one year full time "crash courses" to be run at the Colleges of Education and the University of Durban-Westville for inservice teachers with three year college qualifications in their respective subjects. The Department also introduced two year part-time classroom-oriented courses to be run by the University of Durban-Westville for inservice teachers with three year college qualifications on the subject.

The one-term courses may appear to be inadequate when compared to university course but since it is proposed to do one subject for about 50 days more time would in fact be spent on the subject than would be done in a full academic year at university. This was regarded as a practical solution to the problem of suitably qualified teachers in scarce subjects. Unlike the university academic

course, the emphasis would be on the classroom situation with an approximate balance between content and methodology.

Senior Secondary teachers of Afrikaans Mathematics, Physical Science and Business Economics and also teachers who had the potential to teach these subjects at the Senior Secondary level were regarded as eligible to attend the courses. Each course was open to teachers with a three year teaching diploma in the subject concerned. Teachers with a two year teaching diploma must at least have a first year degree course in the subject concerned.

Professionally qualified teachers were also considered. These were to be judged by principals of schools and academic inspectors to have the potential to teach Senior Secondary classes. Prospective candidates were advised that the short intensive courses would not meet the national criteria for improved category classification. It was therefore proposed that teachers selected to attend course be released on full pay. It was hoped that with this incentive it would be possible to draw a number of suitable candidates for these courses. On completion of

the course, no certificate or diploma was issued but a statement that the teacher had completed the short intensive course was give

On examining the above conditions for courses, the present writer observes certain criticisms. In the (M + 3) course, teachers are to enrol only for the course of study related to the phase in which they are presently teaching. It does occur that a teacher may develop new interest in a differe subject. A teacher should not, it seems be discouraged from pursuing new interest or a new direction. Another weakness is that candidates are not required to submit assignments or attend seminars. They are also not supposed to satisfy D.P. requirements and no tuition is provided. Assignments are surely essential in order to keep students constantl reading and studying. Assignments are also a means of guiding students towards examination Seminars are useful in that they establish contact between students and their lectures and also among the students themselves.

The College does not conduct examinations at the end of the first year, but at the end of the second year candidates write the same final year examination as the intern

students. The criticism here is that it would seem more reasonable to have candidates write examinations at the end of each year rather than at the end of the second year. The arrangement of writing at the end of the second year makes it very difficult for the candidates because by then more work has already accumulated.

The other weakness of the course is that to limit examination centres to the Springfield College of Education and the Transvaal College of Education may cause problems at examination time, particularly for candidates in rural areas. The number of candidates in rural areas may not truly warrant consideration to be given for the establishment of other examination centres, but the situation may cause inconvenience to rural candidates.

The argument that in the short, one term courses, candidates do one subject for about 50 days (thus comparing these courses with one year university courses) is not justified because the short courses are useful as crash programmes but they do not make a fair comparison with a one year university course where more time for background reading is available.

The last criticism of the short intensive courses is that no certificate or diploma is issued on completion. If a teacher is going to be away from school for a period of time it would seem advisable for him to be issued with a certificate or diploma on the completion of the course whether or not he has managed to gain category improvement.

The writer will now examine teacher upgrading courses offered by the Department of Education and Training.

3.3.3. Department of Education and Training :  
Part Time Two Year Course for Teachers  
in Junior Secondary and Senior Secondary  
Classes

The Department of Education and Training has become aware that many teachers are studying for and passing matriculation examination in adult education centres or as private candidates. Although a greater number of these teachers are obtaining the senior certificate their professional training is often on a pre-matriculation level. A great need exists for thoroughly qualified teachers at all levels of training but specifically at the secondary level. Such teachers must be well equipped to teach certain subjects up to Standard Eight or Standard Ten level.

For these reasons the Department of Education and Training decided to introduce further part-time training courses for serving teachers on a post-matriculation level so enabling them to improve their professional qualifications by means of distance learning. Teachers can take further training in the teaching of two school subjects on a junior secondary level. The total number of subjects teachers have to take is five, e.g. academic content and methodology of two subjects and education as a subject.

Courses are offered part-time over two years at Sabokeng, Soweto, St. Francis in the Cape and Soshanguve. Use is made of study aids and assignments. Teachers who study at part-time study centres for an hour per week receive notes or study guides in each subject and they must do assignments. It is anticipated that in the near future courses will be offered by distance teaching only. These will be supplemented by vacation courses. Use of study guides and assignments will still be made.

The Department's Brochure on Further Training of Teachers points out that Teachers who study by means of this method will enrol

at the College for Further Training and their assignments will be marked at the College. The courses are intended for inservice teachers with at least five years teaching experience. Applicants should also possess a recognised Senior Certificate and should have passed in both official languages. A student should have obtained a pass symbol at Senior Certificate level in the two School subjects in which he wishes to specialise. This applies for the Senior Secondary course.

For the Further Teachers' Course for the Junior Secondary phase, preference is given to candidates with a pass symbol in the two school subjects on a senior certificate level. Professional teaching qualifications are also required for the course. An applicant must be in possession of at least a two year teacher training qualification.

Students who are in possession of a Senior Certificate and Primary Teachers' Certificate follow the Further Training Teachers' Course as for the Junior Secondary phase. They do this course over two years and are trained to teach up to Standard Eight. These teachers are then appointed on category B. (M + 2). If the same students are keen to enrol for the Further Teachers' Course at

Senior Secondary level, they have to follow a further two year course and are qualified to teach up to Standard Ten. These teachers are then appointed on category C (M + 3). The courses are somewhat similar to the ones offered by the College of Education for Further Training Courses in the Content and Method of the Two School Subjects.

In the Further Teachers' Course for Senior Secondary phase, an indepth study of the subject content, syllabus, schemes of work and methodology applicable to Standards Nine and Ten are studied. This enriches the student experience and students gain more insight into the course.

The Further Teacher's Course at Junior Secondary level provides an indepth study of the subject content. Syllabi, schemes of work and methodology applicable to Standards Six to Eight are studied. Here also the candidate gains more insight in the content and methodology of the course. This seems to be a practical attempt in solving the problem so common in Black Education : That of under-qualified teachers. If this could be effectively applied one might hope that the quality of Black education would somewhat improve.



For the above courses, teachers are provided with the opportunity to sit for external examinations in April of each year in all the subjects at examination centres of the Department. It is hoped that the course is going to provide teachers with a useful opportunity to upgrade themselves academically and professionally.

### Vista University

A new University, geared towards the upgrading of teachers, has been established. A brochure entitled Courses for Further Training of Teachers 1982/83 and the Role of Vista University reads,

"The requirements specified by Vista University for both courses are exact the same as for the Department of Education and Training, namely, 5 subjects."

Vista has arranged an intake of students during January 1983 for the two year Junior Secondary Teachers' Course. It is expected that during January 1983 about 1 000 students will be allowed to register with Vista University for the Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificate. The University intends to offer all school subjects in a wide variety of combinations. The University intends giving to students comprehensive study notes. Vista examination will take place during November 1983.

#### 3.3.4 Strategies used by Kwa Zulu in Regard to Teacher Upgrading

One of the priorities of the Department of Education and Culture in Kwa Zulu is that of improving the efficiency of the teaching corps by providing inservice training courses as an ongoing programme. Inservice training courses are organized on two levels, namely Departmental courses and circuit courses. Here again one may distinguish between those courses at the Inservice Training Centre at Umlazi, and those that are run by the Department with the help of various universities and teachers' unions.

For several years now the Department of Education and Culture has been running Inservice Training courses for primary school teachers at its established Inservice Training Centre at Umlazi. The main subjects of concentration at the Inservice Training Centre are English, Afrikaans, Mathematics, Social Studies and Science. The programme is geared to cater for teachers at the secondary school level as well. Teachers attend a course on a specific subject for a week and then return to their various circuits where they help teachers who did not attend the course. Details of upgrading courses will now be given.

(i) The Umlazi Inservice Training Centre runs courses for teachers who teach in the Lower Primary and Higher Primary schools. The classes range from Grade One to Standard Six. The centre concentrates on Mathematics, Science, History, Geography and English. These subjects are chosen because they seem to be giving teachers the most difficulty.

The aim of the centre is to examine the syllabuses with a view to improving the ability of teachers in handling specific subjects. The Inservice Training Centre attempts to expose the teachers to a richer content of the subjects. In some cases graduates from Teacher Training Colleges are lacking in appropriate content and method. The reason for this could be that two years' training is too short a time for full teacher education. The problem is more severe with a teacher holding a lower academic qualification. In the past most Black teachers trained as teachers after passing Standard Eight. The Inservice Training Centre assists in improving these teachers.

The Inservice Training Centre has two classes of teachers who are being trained and prepared mainly in Mathematics and Physical

Science. The idea is that teachers who are selected for the courses go back to their circuit after a week's training and are expected to teach other teachers what they have gained at the centre. the programme for the centre is divided into 30 weeks per year. After training, the teachers are given study material which they use for reference.

Inservice Training at post primary level is arranged by a professional adviser from the Department. Science and Mathematics lecturers from the University of the Free State and the University of Zululand run courses in one of the Training Colleges at Eshowe and at Amanzimtoti.

The principal of the Umlazi Inservice Centre feels that the Centre is unable to satisfy the demands of the Kwa Zulu Education Department because in 1981 there were over 20 000 Black teachers in Natal/Kwa Zulu (as reported in Vanguard, Natal African Teachers Journal). Despite this number of teachers and the fact that most of the teachers are unqualified and underqualified, there is only one centre for Inservice Training in Kwa-Zulu.

It is clear that a period of one week's training is too short. The Inservice Training Centre experiences problems with teachers who have different academic qualifications in a subject. The structuring of a course is difficult if it has to meet the requirements of a range of different teachers. The centre does have science equipment and teaching aids but it is of little use exposing teachers to teaching aids which are not found in their schools. Inservice Training for Black teachers is grossly inadequate in Kwa Zulu particularly when one looks at the figures examined by the Buthelezi Commission relating to teacher qualifications.

According to these figures the average white teacher has matriculation plus a teaching diploma. On the other hand the average Black teacher has Standard Eight plus some sort of a teaching diploma. A large number of Black teachers also have Standard Six only, with no past teacher training. The situation reveals that Inservice Training and teacher upgrading requires some kind of a revolution to help the teacher in Black education to meet present standards.

As an attempt to solve the present backlog of teachers in Kwa Zulu, the Buthezezi Commission (1982) suggests the following alleviative measures for teacher training in Natal/Kwa Zulu.

1. Programmes to obtain qualifications for teachers in service should be undertaken both by itinerant teacher-trainee teams by the full use of all college facilities for evening and vacation study.
2. The institution of more colleges for further training in Kwa Zulu/Natal to upgrade underqualified teachers.
3. The provision of short courses at all tertiary institutions in the region for the purpose of upgrading underqualified teachers.
4. The opening of teacher training facilities to all race groups.
5. Attention should be paid, by course study in teacher training, to development of the teacher as a community leader (p. 258)

*to development  
of the*

The points raised by The Buthezezi Commission seem to provide some answers to the problem. As a large number of teachers in Kwa Zulu are unqualified and underqualified more Colleges for Further Training and the provision of short courses would help in the

upgrading of underqualified teachers. The opening of teacher training facilities to all race groups, for student teachers who meet the entrance requirements of the Colleges, would help to alleviate the situation.

Considering the above points would be a useful exercise in alleviating the problem.

(ii) The Outreach Inservice Training Program

In order to help teachers in remote areas such as the uBombo circuits and the Ingwavuma areas, special mobile courses have been designed by the Department. A team of teachers or lecturers selected from the Inservice centre at Umlazi and from teacher training colleges is taken by headquarters staff to those areas to conduct courses for a week.

(iii) Circuit Inservice Training Courses

All the twenty-five circuits in Kwa Zulu have as part of their annual programme a series of Inservice courses for both primary school as well as secondary school teachers. Although the choice of subjects for the courses is left to the discretion of the Inspectorial staff, the reports of the course sent to head office indicate that emphasis is

on the more difficult subjects such as Mathematics, Science and English. Some circuits use personnel from the Teacher Training Colleges nearby and others use those teachers that have attended Inservice courses at Umlazi or the University Inservice Courses as their main lecturers. The main objectives are to increase the efficiency of the teacher with regard to the new techniques in methodology and the general approach in handling the subject as well as correct interpretation of the syllabus.

(iv) Adult Education Senior certificate classes for teachers have been started. According to 1980 statistics, there were 13 202 teachers in the primary schools. Of these only 942 or 7% had an academic background of Standard Ten (National Senior Certificate). The Department has been aware that the majority of the Primary school teachers have only Standard Eight or less academic background. Hence since 1978 adult classes have been started to enable teachers in the field to acquire the National Standard Ten Certificate. In 1980 about 2 000 primary school teachers attended these classes. In all the circuits there are classes which are conducted in the afternoon for teachers



without matriculation. Day schools are used for these classes and classes are run after the day school has closed.

### 3.3.5 The Role of Other Agencies in Kwa Zulu

#### (i) Assistance by Universities

The University of the Orange Free State has since 1978 been conducting inservice courses during school vacations in Mathematics and Physical Science for teachers responsible for Standard Nine and Ten. From 1979 the University of Zululand has likewise started to have courses for secondary school teachers in the following subjects : Geography and Biology (Standard Nine and Ten) and Physical Science (Standard Eight). The main objective of the courses is to increase the efficiency of the teachers in their subjects of specialisation and methods of teaching them.

#### (ii) Teacher Upgrading

The Urban Foundation Education Fact Sheet number 2, "Adult/Non-Formal Education Needs", says that

"The recent move by the Department of Education and Culture/Kwa Zulu in raising the standard of admission to institutions of teacher training - to the Senior Certificate level, has caused concern among those teachers, some 76% of them, who have academic qualifications below standard 10."  
(p. 1).

A demand for adult programmes towards matriculation was strongly expressed in many education circuits and the Department of Education and Culture reacted by providing the necessary stimulus and support for the establishment of adult education centres throughout Kwa Zulu. Unfortunately financial constraints have prevented the development of these centres by the Department, and the Urban Foundation support was enlisted by four circuits : Kwa Mashu, Umbumbulu, Umlazi and Ndwedwe, assisted by the Pietermaritzburg branch of the Teachers' Society. The Urban Foundation Education Fact Sheet (op.cit.) further reads,

"The Urban Foundation responded by providing financial support for a limited period to four of the above as follows:

Kwa Mashu	R 9 000,00
Umlazi	R10 000,00
Umbumbulu	R 5 500,00
Pietermaritzburg	R 6 000,00

Tuition is provided at these centres by teachers and lecturers from White schools through the aegis of the Natal Teachers' Society, lecturers from Springfield College of Education and post graduate students from the University of Durban-Westville.

### 3.3.6 The University of Zululand Extra-Mural Division

This branch of the University started in 1979. It offers courses in three languages: History, Geography and Education. Most of the students are teachers and civil servants. Students come from Umlazi, Kwa Mashu and as far away as Port Shepstone and Pietermaritzburg. The community of Umlazi originally approached the University, which after a study found the Umlazi area to be ideally suited for the upgrading of education in Kwa Zulu. It was realized that teachers' qualifications must be improved. Apart from employed adults there are a few young students at the University branch. They come because they pay less than would be the case in a residential institution. The aim of the University is to help upgrade teachers and members of the community near and around the Durban area. At present there are no hostel facilities.

The basic reason for the establishment of the branch of the University was to help teachers to become graduates, and in future tuition will be given at all levels where there is need. In 1979 there were 150 students and in 1980, 270.

#### 4. CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF UPGRADING SCHEMES

##### Kwa Zulu

Inservice Training for teachers in Kwa Zulu has extremely limited facilities. With a large teacher population having very low qualifications, one can hardly expect those teachers to spend one week at an Inservice Training Centre and hope that they will benefit and improve their teaching ability. The bulk of these teachers are lacking academically, they are also lacking in the methodology of the different subject. In order that these teachers may benefit they would at least require long intensive courses. One Inservice Training Centre is also inadequate for a population of over 20 000 teachers. More Inservice Training Centres should be built in order to meet the demands of inservice training in Kwa Zulu.

Teacher upgrading programmes are as important as formal learning for student teachers. This is much more the case in Kwa Zulu where most teachers only have a Standard Eight academic level. This makes it imperative that the Department of Education and Culture should provide sufficient funds for teacher upgrading if the education of the children is going to improve.

White teachers serving the White Department of Education have colleges for further education, most of these teachers are far better qualified than Black teachers. It is imperative therefore that while it is

necessary to increase and improve preservice training for Black teachers, colleges for further education are necessary. These colleges would provide programmes which would be suited to the needs of Black teachers so that they be upgraded as soon as possible. Sharing facilities and accepting all students who meet the entrance requirements would also be a step in the right direction.

#### The Division of Indian Education

The M + 3 extra-mural two year part-time course for inservice teachers also has problems. The first one is that no tuition whatsoever is provided to the students. Tuition to students would be helpful in that the problems which students encounter can be solved if there are regular meetings with the students. More so because students who attend these courses might have left school some years back. Candidates are also not required to submit assignments. It is much better for students who are studying by correspondence to have regular assignments because those keep them in close contact with their work. Students who register for this course have very limited library facilities.

The officials of the Department also reported that there are teachers who register for courses which are not related to what they teach. On certain occasion for instance, a teacher may be teaching home economics and register for something different from this. To

restrict teachers only to subjects which they teach is not fair on the part of the Department because a teacher may like to move to a new subject altogether. Students who study science subjects experience difficulties because science facilities are limited for these courses. The College is based in Durban and it is more accessible to Durban-based people. Tutors who design courses are also attached to the College in Durban and it is only local teachers who can find access to the College and yet teachers from all over the country do the course. The course is for inservice teachers and yet the examinations are intended for preservice teachers. This creates problems because the course serves two slightly different purposes.

In 1978 - 79    1209 students registered for the course  
                   934 wrote examinations  
                   634 passed  
                   226 wrote supplementary examinations  
                   13 did not pass the supplementary  
                                   examinations so that  
                   850 actually passed the examination.

In 1981 - 82    285 students registered for the course

In an evaluation (by the Division of Indian Education of the Department of Internal Affairs) of the short intensive classroom-oriented one-term courses for inservice teachers on full pay, the following points emerged:

3.1 Principals, subject advisers and the majority of the teacher-participants reported that the courses were beneficial. However 39% of the participants of the Junior Primary Education course felt that their knowledge of the subject had not been significantly altered by attending the course and that there was no need to change their teaching techniques to improve classroom instruction.

3.2 Participants expressed a desire to attend follow up courses.

3.3 The courses were heavily classroom oriented and were based on the syllabuses in operation in schools.

3.4 Lecturers and participants listed the limited availability of the College facilities as being the main difficulty encountered. The heterogenous nature of the groups presented difficulties to the lecturers as well as to the participants.

The present writer submits that whilst all teachers are provided with upgrading programmes in Natal/Kwa Zulu, Black teachers serving the Department of Education and Culture require more intensive programmes. This is because they seem to be more disadvantaged than the other

5. THE ROLE OF TEACHERS' SOCIETIES AND PROFESSIONAL ORGANISATIONS IN TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

5.1 In this section the writer will attempt to trace the role that teachers societies have to play in teachers professional development. The writer will analyse professions and professionalism and the different activities in which teachers are engaged in Natal/Kwa Zulu.

5.2 The Role of Teachers Societies in Natal/Kwa Zulu Towards Professional Development

Peteni (1978) cites Mtimkhulu who argues that

"The regional associations and the African Teachers Association of South Africa, have made significant contributions to the national good by providing leadership on national issues." (p. 67).

The Teachers' Journal : Organ of the South African Indian Teachers' Association July (1972) quotes the Vice President of the World Confederation of the Organisation of the Teaching Profession as having said

" Professional organizations have a great role to play not merely in the betterment of salaries and service conditions but also in raising the professional competence of teachers who are the real nation builders." (p. 2).



This suggests that teachers have a very great potential in the professional development of the teaching profession..

The writer will analyse three teachers organisations in Natal/Kwa Zulu: The Natal African Teachers' Union, The Teachers' Association of South Africa and the Natal Teachers' Society. Each of these societies plays a very important role in the betterment of teachers in Natal and none of them actually restricts membership on grounds of race.

The above organisations qualify as professional organisations and they are concerned with those who do professional work which broadly defined is the type of work done by someone who has undergone some kind of training both in theory and practice.

Teaching involves the responsibility of educating children and in Kwa Zulu teachers have the added responsibility of educating illiterate adults and members of the general public who want to improve their academic qualifications. Better qualified teachers also are to educate the large number of underqualified teachers towards the matriculation certificate.

Hoyle and Meggary (1980) argue that

"Professional development is the process by which teachers acquire the knowledge and skills essential to good professional practice at each stage of a teaching career." (p.42).

Hoyle and Meggary (op.cit.) identify the following criteria as useful in order to categorise an occupation as a profession:

- (1) A profession is an occupation which performs a crucial social function.
- (2) The skill is exercised in situations which are not wholly routine but in which new problems and situations have to be handled.
- (3) The exercise of this function requires a considerable degree of skill.
- (4) The acquisition of knowledge and the development of specific skills require a lengthy period of higher education.
- (5) The period of education and training also involves the process of socialization into professional values. (p. 45).

Langford (1978) argues that

"The knowledge and skill required for a profession include whatever theoretical knowledge is available." (p. 9).

He asserts that

"Such knowledge can be acquired only through study and training over a period of years and professional training cannot begin until a certain minimum standard of general education has been attained." (idem).

Before entering a profession one has to continue his full-time education for several years up to a certain level. It is only after this standard that students embark upon a rigorous course of professional training. The general approach has been to try to identify the characteristics of occupations like medicine and law traditionally designated professions.

The teaching profession particularly for Blacks in South Africa is unable to satisfy this condition as many Black teachers have very low academic qualifications. A professional qualification declares Langford (1978)

"Represents a considerable financial and intellectual investment both for the individual concerned and the community." (p. 9).

It is particularly with regard to the above sentiments that Gilbert (1982) expresses doubts about the professional status of teachers. Gilbert cites Etzioni who has classified teaching as a semi

profession regarding the claims by teachers to the status of doctors and lawyers as not fully established.

Gilbert (op.cit.) cites Etzioni who says the following about teachers:

"Their training is shorter, their status less legitimised, their right to privileged communication less established, there is less of a specialised body of knowledge, and they have less autonomy from supervision and societal control for the profession." (p. 5).

Though teaching falls short in other respects as a profession, it does satisfy other conditions. For instance members of a teaching profession form associations through which their shared views of their profession can find articulation.

Langford (op.cit.) argues that

"Professional associations may also contribute to the achievement of the purposes of the profession by providing facilities for members." (p. 9).

These facilities could be for instance technical information, sponsoring and financing research, representing the profession in discussions with government, in public debate and in the public press. Professionalization argues Hoyle and

Meggory (1980) may be regarded as

"As the improvement of practice which involves the continuous improvement of the knowledge and skills of practitioners." (p. 44).

In this sense points out Hoyle and Meggory (op.cit) "Professionalization can be equated with professional development." (idem). Professionalism also means a commitment among members of an occupation toward increased professional status. It also means strategies used particularly by associations or unions to achieve professionalism.

It may be concluded that it is part of the purpose of the teaching profession to foster critical attitudes to its members. Langford (op.cit.) points out that "An open-minded, critical attitude may serve to improve social institutions." (p. 19).

Citing a few arguments against teaching Gilbert (op.cit.) says

"The service rendered by teachers cannot be viewed as a unique essential service when many influences other than that of the teacher play a part in moulding the mind and character of the young." (p. 6).

The following agencies are said to have a definite role in moulding the young; these are the educational influence of the family, the peer group and society at large. Gilbert writes, "The major share of education lies beyond the scope of the Teacher." (idem). There is no denying the importance of educational influences outside and beyond the school. This has been brought home by the De Lange Report and the present writer analysed the value of formal, informal and non-formal education in the previous chapters. Gilbert argues that Teachers "do not have a monopoly in educational influence." (p. 6). He points out that Teachers "should try to ensure that teaching works hand-in-hand with other educational agencies." (idem).

An association of professional persons presumably exists for the professional development of its members, their further education and their relationship with the outside world. Fafunwa (1976) stresses the importance of teachers organisations in teachers professional development. He points out that "Teachers should hold conferences, conduct seminars and organise study programmes." (p. 105). These would be to the benefit of teachers. Fafunwa further declares that

"Educational institutes can perform an extremely useful service by encouraging and promoting professional organisations such as associations of principals, teachers associations, and subject associations. (p. 105).

Periodic meetings of these and other professional organisations would not only enhance the status of these bodies, but would provide a useful forum for the exchange of ideas of common problems.

Professional development is part of all professions, the medical profession, the legal profession and almost all professions these days are conscious of the need for retraining. Different professions organise courses, programmes and in-service courses intended to upgrade their members up to date with development are arranged. It seems that professional groups may be employed but they do not carry out merely routine work.

In his address to the Diamond Jubilee Conference of ATASA (1981) on The Role of a Teacher's Association in a Changing World, Samuels points out that

"One of the areas of concern to teacher associations throughout the world is that of professional growth." (p. 10).

He further argues that

"Teachers associations must also strive to get full time inservice facilities for teachers to renew knowledge and keep abreast with changing practice." (p. 13).

Teachers organizations must, it seems, be geared towards the improvement of subject methods and curriculum development through the establishment of subject associations. Professionalism in this regard is that teachers themselves are involved in their further education and in the discussion of educational issues.

### 5.3 Subject Associations

The Natal Teachers' Society and the Teachers' Association of South Africa have subject associations catering for teachers. In the case of the Natal African Teachers Union The Vanguard (1981) declares that the movement is organising subject societies in which ideas and information are exchanged and communicated to all concerned through lectures, seminars, discussions and workshops." (p. 2). However, in the Natal African Teachers Union subject associations are not as fully developed as in the other two sister organisations, i.e. the Natal Teachers Society and the Teachers Association of South Africa

#### 5.3.1 English Association

The Natal Association for the Teaching of English has over the years done a lot of work in the teaching of English. Nate and Tasa have provided meetings in order to pool resources and experience in common ventures.



Meetings on networks and workshops have been held by both associations and they have collaborated in many different activities towards the development of their subject associations.

In 1981 the Natal Association for the Teaching of English and the English Association of Tasa organised two joint meetings at Springfield College of Education. The first was on Trends in South African literature. Later, Christabel Buniston from England addressed teachers of both subject associations. Workshops were held on oral communication and verbal dynamics. A sponsorship of R7 000 by Anglo-American made it possible for this project to be arranged.

Another exciting venture was the Alan Paton Literary Competition designed to encourage literary research and sensitivity in senior pupils of all races in Natal/Kwa Zulu. R8 500 was sponsored for this project. Subject associations have managed to make their importance to be felt by the public and it is for this reason that these two associations were able to get sponsorships for these two programmes.

Other subject associations have also done quite a good amount of work in promoting their subject associations.

#### 5.3.2. Geography Association

The geographical association holds an annual conference on the teaching of geography. Excursions and talks are also arranged.

#### 5.3.3 Natal History Teachers' Association

The history associations also hold annual conferences. They also arrange tours and talks for teachers of history.

#### 5.3.4 Management Workshops

Most Principals and Vice-Principals have little or no training in management and leadership. Consequently workshops, seminars or conferences on management and leadership have been also arranged by the Teachers' Society. In 1980 for instance Tasa arranged a workshop for its members who were aspiring towards promotion.

#### 5.3.5 Joint Council of Teachers' Association in Natal

The Joint Council of Teachers' Associations was established in 1967. It operates in Natal and represents five

teacher associations namely Natal African Teachers' Union; Natalse Onderwyserunie, Natal Teachers Society, Society of Natal Teachers' and Teachers Association of South Africa. Behr (1978) points out that

"Free of structures, the Council's primary objective is to promote professional contact at grass roots level among all teachers." (p. 307).

A very successful conference initiated by Jocotan was held in September 1980 at the Springfield College of Education on the theme Education for Giftedness in South Africa.

Within Teachers' Associations in Natal, particularly within the Natal Teachers' Society there are associations catering for the interests of particular subject teachers and these organise meetings, conferences or courses to promote awareness of new trends or developments in their own areas of interest. Through the publications or follow up activities which these gatherings lead to, informal and formal influences on policy-making may be exerted and the feelings and attitudes of teachers may be made known to the authorities. All these are very helpful and useful in teacher professional development and this is adult education in practice.

### 5.3.6 Concluding Remarks

On examining the three teachers' organisations in Natal/Kwa Zulu it may be concluded that all of them play a significant role in their members' professional development. However, the Natal African Teachers Union still has to cover a lot of ground because the subject societies of this organisation are not properly structured. Whilst other teachers organisations have headquarters with a full time staff we find that the Natal African Teachers' Union is still lacking in this regard.

It would be a very fine thing if the Natal African Teachers' Union would come closer to the other professional organisations so as to learn from them what they are doing in terms of the development of the profession. Natu has a very large teacher population and the large numbers do cause administrative problems particularly in rural areas. At the end of 1980 Natu had approximately 20 000 teachers. Although it seems that this organisation is not effective, they are coping with tremendous odds. One does not know whether the problems like the general low academic qualifications of teachers, the burden of overcrowded classes and the general poor conditions under which Black teachers work,

do not have a bearing and a retarding effect on their professional advancement. Luthuli (1981) has the following argument "Educationists agree and emphasise that when the educational level of all groups is uplifted, the level and quality of the life of everyone in the country will be improved." (p. 15). The general educational level of members of a teachers' association will also presumably influence the groups professional development. The inequalities in educational provision in Natal/Kwa Zulu, for the different race groups, does affect even the professional organisations in the province.

It is gratifying that the three teachers' organisations which the writer studied in Natal/Kwa Zulu i.e. The Natal Teachers' Society, the Natal African Teachers Union and the Teachers' Association of South Africa are active in the professional development of their members though to different degrees.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

The present study has revealed that changing society makes it essential to provide inservice training for teachers. There is also a need for constant upgrading for teachers. This provision is made by the different departments of education in Natal/Kwa Zulu. Problems in Kwa Zulu however seem to be more acute and complex. The

present writer submits that more effort should be directed to inservice and teacher upgrading in Kwa Zulu if Kwa Zulu is to meet present trends in teacher education.

On the role of teachers' societies and teachers' professional development, the present study also revealed that the three teachers' societies in Natal/Kwa Zulu are actively engaged in their professional development. It is however recommended that the Natal African Teachers' Union should make a serious effort towards the establishment of active subject associations. This would definitely improve the efficiency of the teachers in the different subjects.

## APPENDIX

### A REVIEW OF OPPORTUNITIES FOR TEACHER UPGRADING IN KENYA WHICH SHOWS HOW INADEQUATE THE POSITION (ESPECIALLY FOR BLACKS) IS IN THIS AREA OF SOUTH AFRICA

A Unesco publication which was prepared for the Conference of Ministers of Education of African member states of Unesco (1978) cites programmes of distance teaching and mass education which were intended to upgrade teachers in Kenya. The present writer has attempted to summarise the pertinent points of this upgrading programme, for purposes of comparison.

According to the report, in 1968, the government of Kenya established the correspondence course unit within the institute of adult studies at the University of Nairobi. Priority was given to primary school teachers for upgrading purposes. The first group to be enrolled for correspondence courses were the lowest professional grade of primary teachers, then referred to as the "P3 Grade". The early course covered the first two years of secondary schooling in English, Kiswahili, Biology, History, Geography, Modern Mathematics and Physical Science. The report does not explain whether the course was orientated towards method or content. It however does appear that the course was based on content, as the report declares, that to date some 3 000 students have been enrolled on an average of four subjects each.

The report points out that in 1969, the correspondence course unit undertook a second programme. This was the unqualified teachers programme which was intended to improve the teaching effectiveness of previously untrained teachers. The course consisted of correspondence courses, radio programmes and short residential courses during school holidays. To date over 10 000 unqualified teachers have successfully completed their upgrading courses and have been awarded certificates.

The instructional programme provided by the correspondence course unit comprises the following four elements : correspondence study guides, textbooks, teaching materials and experiment kits, supplementary radio broadcasts covering the material in one or more lessons of the study guides, the corrections and comments made on students work by qualified secondary and university teachers and the occasional face-to-face teaching during short residential courses. The correspondence course unit students are highly motivated by the immediate benefits in terms of promotion and increases in salaries. Many of them have also become aware of the urgent need to upgrade themselves in their professions.

The correspondence course unit has realised that there are some advantages as well as shortcomings in the use of distance teaching. The first advantage is



that it has operated over long distances and has catered for a widely scattered population. People who already have jobs can study in their own time and in their houses or places of work. Teachers following courses of inservice training can put into immediate effect some of the things they learn since their classroom situation provides them with an instant and continuing opportunity for practice.

There are however a few shortcomings of the course e.g. the physical isolation of the student which may result in his being easily discouraged. Library and other facilities may be inadequate. The student may lack the structure which is provided by regular lessons at daily or weekly intervals which is found in every formal learning situation.

The present writer feels that the example from Kenya seems to be more advanced than some of the programmes for teacher upgrading in South Africa, particularly for Blacks. In Kenya there is an established institution with a full-time staff. The organisers also make use of other media e.g. the radio for teacher upgrading programmes. In Natal/Kwa Zulu apart from building additional Teacher Training Colleges, it is essential to establish a College of Education for Further Training so that the large number of unqualified and underqualified teachers can have a special institution where they can be upgraded. This means involving adult professional people in their academic and professional

development and thus making them to make a better contribution to their own profession and development.

In the publication by Gray, (1980), "A suggestion for a Crash Teaching Improvement Project for Developing Countries", Russell cites courses for Inservice Teachers in Northern Nigeria. Russell reports that in 1966, 24.2 percent of all primary teachers in Nigeria had Grade Two certificates. This meant that after leaving primary school, they had five years of training and were permitted to teach in all seven classes of the primary school and also the first two classes of secondary school. The remainder of the teachers had three years or less training after a primary course.

There are three types of activities which meet the needs of inservice teachers in Northern Nigeria, namely, conferences, workshops and courses. Courses and workshops are of short duration specially selected teachers meet experts or advisors under the chairmanship of a specialist. Discussions include a critical examination of all aspects of the existing situation connected with the topic for the conference. Having diagnosed the problems, the cures are then suggested and a plan of action is made, resolutions are included in the minutes which are sent to the Ministry of Education and other interested persons for consideration and approval. Some of the conferences have had far-reaching consequence for example on new mathematics affected both training colleges and secondary schools, its proposals were considered by the West African Examination Council.

Workshops are popular in the Northern provinces. A lot of preparation is necessary, reference books, tool and materials have to be assembled, teaching aids must also be found. Central courses cater for large numbers of teachers needing instruction in specific subjects. In Nigeria they have become necessary because of the change in examination regulations which require a knowledge of new teaching techniques or because teachers want to be refreshed with new ideas and better teaching methods.

#### Teachers' Inservice Education Projects

In January 1967 another programmes was launched. This Teacher Inservice Education Project was intended to upgrade primary school Grade Three teachers to Grade 4.

The 3 000 teachers who took this special course carried out their normal duties during the school day and attended classes in the afternoon or evenings and at weekends. Plans were made for residential courses during the school holidays for those who lived far away from one of the thirty centres. Sixty Peace Corps Volunteers were recruited to assist with the scheme. These volunteers were in charge of the classes at the centres. This programme was started by the Ministry of Education and officers of the Ohio University Project stationed in Kano.

The above are some of the programmes in Kenya and Nigeria which were intended to upgrade teachers and make them more efficient in their work. They are also an aspect of adult education in the teaching profession.

## CHAPTER 5 : SOME ASPECTS OF ADULT EDUCATION IN BRITAIN, WITH REFERENCE TO A TOUR UNDERTAKEN BY THE WRITER

### 1. INTRODUCTION

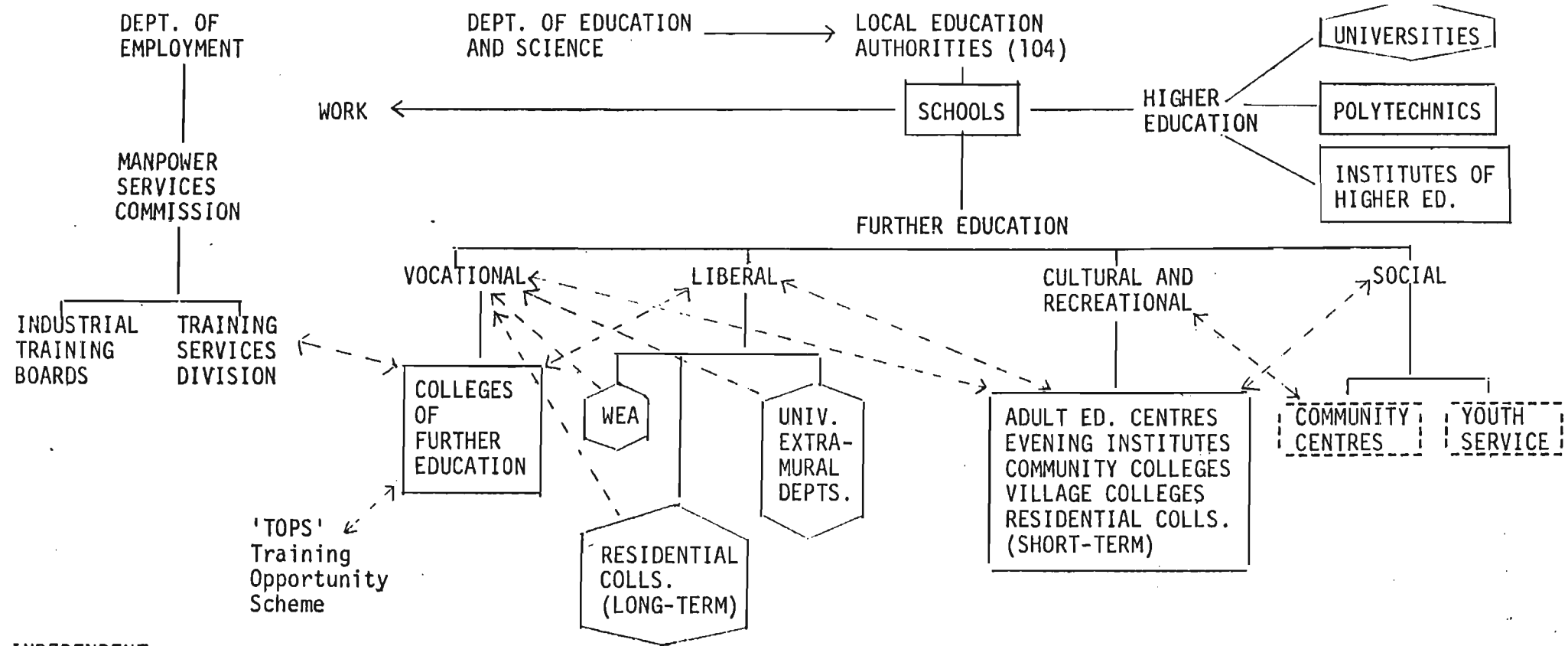
The organisation of adult education in Britain is extremely complex and interesting, and provides a wide variety of experience from basic literacy training to extension classes attended by members of the public who seek intellectual stimulation. Jennings (1981 p. 22) notes that the rudiments of an adult education system grew out of the deficiencies of day school provision. Sunday schools, founded in the eighteenth century, "taught the art of reading to make scripture accessible" thus serving as basic educational agencies for the working class population. From about 1800, it seems a movement developed towards the establishment of separate adult schools. The present provisions for adult education as reviewed by Jennings (op.cit.), are extremely broad and multifaceted with many interested organisations contributing to the total effort. University departments of adult education (for example at the Universities of Hull and Nottingham) co-ordinate courses and provide training for adults.

The writer was fortunate enough to be invited by the British Council to participate in a study-tour of a

selection of agencies and centres for adult education in Britain early in 1982 and to learn about the provisions made for the education of adults in England and Scotland. Though the situations in Britain and in Kwa Zulu are obviously very different, the experience provided the writer with insight into the requirements for an efficiently-organised system of adult education.

The purpose of the present chapter is to review in broad terms the provisions for adult education in Britain. The work of Jennings, of the University of Hull, Department of Adult Education, and also of Stock, Director of the National Institute of Adult Education in Britain will serve as major sources here; the writer was fortunate to attend classes given by Jennings and to acquire reports he had written. Following the review, a detailed analysis of the tour undertaken (in the company of officials of the Ciskei Department of Education), will be given. The intention is not to provide a comparative analysis with the situation in Kwa-Zulu, for the simple reason that the latter situation is totally undeveloped by comparison - but to indicate a background in terms of which the demands for adult education in Kwa Zulu may be highlighted.

The diagram on the following page (Source : Stock 1980), illustrates the structure of the provision for adult education in Britain, and serves as background to the next section.



INDEPENDENT  
 CORRESPONDENCE COLLEGES  
 BROADCASTING  
 PRIVATE CONFERENCE CENTRES  
 PRIVATE LANGUAGE SCHOOLS  
 PRIVATE COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS  
 FIRMS' TRAINING CENTRES

KEY:

<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	= Funded by LEAs
<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; display: inline-block; transform: rotate(180deg);"></div>	= Funded partly by central government
<div style="border: 1px dashed black; width: 60px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	= Funded partly by LEAs and partly by voluntary effort

## 2. THE ORGANISATION OF ADULT EDUCATION IN BRITAIN'S HISTORY

The adult education systems in Britain are complex and they have evolved over a long period and in response to a variety of needs. Stock (1980) argues that

"The primitive roots of British adult education can be traced back to the early mediaeval church." (p. 5).

This was motivated by the concern of Bishops of the church to ensure that their priests and others in holy orders had the necessary skills to present the word of God to the people.

A further need was to maintain a group of literate people who could read and write the scriptures and other holy books. Jennings (1981) echoes the same sentiments as Stock and declares that "The standard history of adult education in Britain begins with the middle ages." (p. 22). Up to 1820 there was nothing in England and Wales that could be described as a public education system. Schools for children of the common people were provided from charitable sources by religious organisations and private enterprise. In the industrial area, schooling for working-class children was usually limited to a few years, ending at about the age of nine when children could be employed. Jennings (op.cit.) point out that "many children never attended a day school." (p.22).

Schools began to open in the evening to teach basic subjects to children, young people and some adults. Although children and adults could attend the same classes Jennings (op.cit.) asserts that

"A movement developed from about 1800 for the establishment of separate adult schools." (idem).

The methodist church made the biggest contribution in the early development of adult education.

Experiments in teaching scientific knowledge to skilled workers in Glasgow led to the creation of the first adult education movement, the Mechanics Institutes which spread rapidly from Scotland to England. This was the root of the modern system of vocational adult education.

The second major adult education movement since the 1870's was the University Extension Movement. Extension, points out Jennings (op.cit.), had two meanings

"The creation of new university colleges and the provision of university lectures for adults in towns throughout the country." p. 26).

The 1880 and 90's brought about the development of a system of technical education from which have grown the modern vocational education structure and the evening institute colleges like Ruskin, which is a residential



college for continuing education for working people.

The founding of the Workers' Educational Association in 1903 and the creation of the tutorial class system made working class education a major concern of university extra-mural work.

Stock (op.cit.) declares that

"The early years of the twentieth century also saw the beginnings of the fourfold partnerships of central government, local education authorities, university and voluntary agencies." (p. 7).

In 1949 the National Institute of Adult Education was formed. The National Institute is committed to research development, documentation and publication work. It is also, points out Stock (op.cit.), "the major co-ordinating and consultative body for the education of adults." (p. 9).

In 1969 the two methods of distance teaching were brought together to create the open university. Once again, argues Jennings, "a new opportunity was offered to adult students." (p. 35). The final stage of British adult education was the establishment in 1974 of the Manpower Service Commission. This Commission had resources and authority for the promotion of vocational training both within and outside the Local Education authority further education Sector.

The structure of British adult education like the culture on which it is founded is according to Jennings (op.cit.) "decentralised and diverse." (p. 6). The long tradition of voluntary provision organised by societies and associations with social, moral or political aims contributes to the pluralistic approach of the system. There is also a century of university commitment plus legislative enactments which have encouraged local authority intervention. All these factors contribute to the complex British system of adult education. In the more recent structural additions, the purpose has been to involve all interested parties, local education authorities, voluntary associations, universities, teachers and students and industry. The purpose has been to identify jointly the unmet needs and to agree to collaborate on approaches to solve the observed problems

There are four major organising sections for continuing education for adults in all four countries of the United Kingdom. These are the local education authorities, the universities, the voluntary associations and central government departments. The largest in every dimension are the local education authorities.

Stock (1980) points out that

"Local Education Authority - provided courses account for just over 85% of all known adult education enrolments." (p. 19).

The L.E.A.'s are responsible for the vast majority of buildings, equipment and human resources such as teacher Adult education colleges, centres and institutes are mostly L.E.A.-owned and financed. The colleges of further education and polytechnics, many of which undertake substantial amounts of educational work for adults, are also part of the L.E.A. structures. Similarly the day schools for children, many of which are used in the evenings for adult courses together with the special built multi-purpose school-centred campuses such as the village or community colleges, are all L.E.A. operated.

Jennings (op.cit.) asserts that "the government operates some powerful control over expenditure." (p. 6) Within the large Local Education authority sector there are three major forms of organisation as follows:

2.1 The area Adult Education Centre,  
College or Institute :

In this instance an area principal has the responsibility for arranging, publicising and supervising a wide-ranging programme of courses for adults, conducted in a variety of buildings within a determined geographical area.

In addition, especially in rural areas, village and church halls are hired to provide meeting places for classes and groups. Sometimes there are well established satellite centres, with

either full-time or part-time heads responsible to the overall management.

## 2.2 The Community College or Village College

In all examples of this organisational form a secondary school, with all the usual range of specialist teaching facilities, has additional accommodation and staff for the provision of adult education programmes and often for youth service activities as well. The concept has been developed and extended particularly in semi rural and small town situations in several other local education authorities where extensive facilities are brought together on a campus and designated as a community college. The overall management of all the services (school, youth and adult) is usually under the direction of a single principal or warden assisted by specialist adult community or youth tutors. The intention in this pattern of provision is to offer a totality of educational services conveniently grouped together and central to a given neighbourhood allowing ready access to classes, library clubs, societies and recreational facilities.

## 2.3 The Adult Studies Departments of Colleges of Further Education

This form of organisation uses as the base for adult education services one of the many district technical or further education colleges

originally set up to provide employment-related education for the immediate post-school years. Increasingly these colleges have been catering for older people retraining courses, "topping-up" courses, management programmes or new technology courses. Much of the management of a typical adult studies department is developed by a specialist adult educator designated a Head of Department of Adult Studies.

In all three models outlined above, much of the teaching of adult students is carried out by part-time staff. Part-time teachers are still needed from outside the teaching profession to cater for the diverse specialisms. This necessitates induction and inservice training to help the part-time teachers to work effectively.

The British universities have a long tradition in adult education. In 1873, declares Stock (1980

"The University of Cambridge began a service of extension lectures which encouraged liberal minded teachers and schools to give courses of public lectures." (p. 22).

This was done in the industrial centres throughout the country. The practice was followed five years later by the University of Oxford. The extramural development of a university usually exists to enable it to involve staff and resources from any

internal department of the university and channel them into services to the community in the surrounding region.

Stock (op.cit.) points out that

"There are twelve university adult education extramural departments, which have specialised in the study of adult education as a discipline in its own right." (p. 24).

These organise professional education courses for adult education in all sectors, leading to diplomas and advanced degrees. These universities together with certain other related-research institutions, plus the open university, have banded together to form the Standing Conference of University Teaching and Research in the Education of Adults (S C U T R E A). Stock (op.cit.) points out that

"There is also the newest and most adult of all British universities, namely the open university." (p. 25).

It provides distance education courses leading to ordinary first degrees honours and post-experience advanced degree courses.

There are also correspondence colleges. Jennings (1981) argues that "Most of their courses prepare students for examinations but some are

designed for leisure pursuits." (p. 19). Four other categories can be identified: vocational training schools for hairdressing courses; professional organisations which provide courses, for example in management; driving schools; and a wide variety of clubs, societies and enterprises which offer courses residential and non-residential in artistic and cultural pursuits, hobbies and sports.

Jennings (op.cit.) argues that "the organisational structure of industrial training, unlike that of the public education system is basically the same for all parts of Britain." (p. 18). This sector is not the responsibility of the government education departments, but of the Department of Employment in England and the corresponding sections of the Scottish, Welsh and Northern Ireland offices. The main agencies are the Manpower Services Commission and the Industrial Training Boards.

The other sector of British Adult Education is that of the Voluntary Association. The number of such associations is considerable. There are fourteen long-standing associations which are corporate members of the National Institute of Adult Education (England and Wales). There are also several associations in Scotland. The largest and the internationally best known

voluntary body is the Workers' Educational Association. Stock (op.cit.) points out that

"There is a large number of local, regional and national trade-union and workers' organisations affiliated to the Workers' Educational Association." (p. 2).

Besides the W.E.A. there are a number of other voluntary organisations such as the National Federation of Womens' Institute, and the National Union of Town's Womens' Guild. The National Council of Y.M.C.A.'s all receive central government grants, for their central organising and promotional work in education. There is also a large proportion who receive no regular direct government grants although occasionally they attract local, central government grants in respect of particular programmes or activities.

Recently a number of voluntary groups specialising in social and educational work with the most deprived and disadvantaged sections of the population have received special grants in respect of literacy work, English for immigrants, or parent-education programmes. Other important voluntaries are the national Federation of Community Associations, The Educational Centres Associations, The Trade Union Congress Education Department and the Co-operative Union. Officially,



the National Institute of Adult Education and the Scottish Institute of Adult Education are voluntary organisations. Stock, (op.cit.) points out that "A structural weakness which is being tackled is that of linkage between the various sectors and dimensions of post school education." (p. 29). The writer feels that the problem of linking different adult education programmes seems to be common. This is also the case with the few programmes examined by the writer in Natal/Kwa Zulu.

The above gives a picture of British adult education which is essentially pluralistic and diverse. It also shows the long history of the development of British adult education, beginning from the middle ages. This has led to its becoming sophisticated and complex. In Kwa Zulu, adult education is a fairly recent development.

The writer will now mention some courses for adults organised by the Inner London Education Authority in 1981/82. A few examples in each of the courses will be tabled.

Art:

Experimental printmaking

Three Dimensional Construction

Textile Sculpture and Surface Exploration

Fashion and Creative Crafts

Area workshops

Co-operative Development

Fashion and Textile Craft Studies

Health EducationModern LanguagesMulti-Ethnic Education and Community Relations

Race, Community and Education : Multi Cultural  
Education

Physical Education

Canoeing at Seaside

Courses in mountain craft

Sailing courses

The above list gives a small indication of the range and variety of voluntary educational courses open to adults through the offices of one local educational authority.

The writer now proceeds to review some of the agencies for adult education which he observed while in Britain.

### 3. SOME INTERESTING AGENCIES OF ADULT EDUCATION

As already indicated, the range of groups and organisations providing adult education in Britain is broad and varied. It is neither opposite nor possible

in the present work to provide a full description of all the organisations which contribute, or even of those organisations which the writer was personally able to visit. However, in order to indicate the range and type of educational experience possible, a few such organisations are selected for descriptive analysis below. It is first necessary, however, to note the increasing range of courses offered. Stock (op.cit.) points out that

"The L.E.A. adult evening and day centres used to cater for the fields of practical, cultural, physical and creative subjects (p. 30).

These were subjects in which students could actually practise the particular skills they were learning. In more recent years, more L.E.A. adult colleges and centres have successfully promoted rigorously intellectual courses in addition to those in pottery, drama, music, needlecraft, dance and language learning. Another developing field in the work situation is that of Industrial Studies provided by institution of both local education authorities and other responsible Bodies. This field includes industrial relations, health and safety at work and industrial law. A particular development area has been in the field of new opportunities for women, known as fresh horizons. The rationale behind these courses is that women wishing to return into the world of

work or higher education should be provided with opportunities. There is also the Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPS) sponsored by the Manpower Commission. Tops schemes are essentially devised for training and retraining of unemployed adults.

Other programmes are the Industrial Language Training units specifically designed to help non-English-speaking immigrants to gain knowledge of functional English together with other information relevant to their living and working in Great Britain.

There are also considerable developments in the provision of basic education for adults whose self-perception is such as to require specific tuition in reading, writing and elementary competition or improvement in the English language, as well as social and life skills. There are also courses on parent education. These involve child psychology and child development courses. Courses are also provided on problems of the youth, for example, teenage rebellion and vandalism. Most local education authorities also run courses on retirement. These are designed to help those approaching retirement and the recently retired, to cope with the various problems of retirement from employment and increasing age.

## Selected Organisations

### 3.1 The "City Lit", London

The City Literary Institute is situated in Stukeley Street in the East End of London. It is run by the Inner London Education Authority. Since 1919 the City Lit has annually provided programmes for an increasing number of Londoners. Every class in the City Lit appoints a class secretary to act as a link between its members and tutor. Class secretaries meet together with the Principal at regular intervals to discuss matters of common interest.

The City Lit has the following educational facilities : Library, Resource Room, Audio-visual aids. It also has social facilities comprising canteens, a students association, a coffee lounge and bar. Another sign of keeping in the forefront of adult education is that students and tutors now sit together on a Governing Body to assist the Principal in devising new programmes.

During the war and post-war years, the City Lit did not operate smoothly, some classes could not go on because some of the lecturers were away in the war. During this period the enrolment was 2 782 students. Although classes went on, this was however a period of great anxiety.

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The City Lit appears to be a very popular institution because on enrolment day students take hours to register. To obviate enrolment problems the administration brings in more tutors for enrolment interviewing, it also sets up a general advisory service. Students are enabled to learn as much as possible about the class they have selected or about its appropriateness to their wishes.

At present the City Lit has a Principal and two Vice-Principals. It also has full-time heads of departments. These staff improvements improved the quality of work. There is now apparently better selection and briefing of part-time tutors, students are better interviewed and advised. Henry Jones a former Principal of the City Lit describes it as

"A place of light-heart but deeply serious mind, a place rich with personal creativeness, and appreciation of the creativity of others." (p. 7).

He adds that

"The City Lit stands as a glimpse of what life could be like in a civilised society when we have got right the relation between work and leisure." (idem).

The present Principal has been on the staff of the City Lit since 1958. He became Principal in 1968. Student enrolment has increased from 10 874 in 1967 - 68 to 12 593 in 1977 - 78. The City Lit also serves disadvantaged adults. It has built up a centre for the deaf. It has also developed interesting courses on Fresh horizons and an Adult Education Training Unit. Concern for the quality of learning and teaching in London's centres and agencies of all kinds led to the establishment of the Adult Education Training Unit. The Training Unit's achievements in areas of non-formal as well as formal adult education have been widely recognised and it is now seen as the focal point for all training for staff in the L.E.A.'s adult education service. The City Lit has initiated many forms of partnerships with other educational establishments. For example, in recent years it has strengthened the work of London's six forms by arranging special enrichment courses in French, German, Spanish, Italian and Music. The Centre for the Deaf has provided lip reading and manual communication courses for other institutes' programmes.

The present Principal reports that the City Lit gets visitors from different parts of the world for example from different parts of Europe, America, the Middle and Far East and Australia as

well as South Africa. Visitors come to discuss how the City Lit engages in adult education. On looking into the future of the City Lit the pamphlet Matrix (1979) cites the present Principal as wishing for a drastic change in the attitudes of citizens. The present Principal suggests that opinion makers should be helped, "to see the need to redefine work and leisure and make arrangements for access to learning throughout our lives not simply at the start." (p. 5).

The following are some of the courses offered by the City Lit Adult Education Training Unit for 1981/82.

1. The Role of the Support Tutor, Course I and II.
2. Management of Adult Education including Adult Education as a Community Resource Care and Counselling and Education for the elderly in residential care
3. Other courses cover subjects such as the following: Humanities and Science, Psychology and Philosophy, Social and Political Studies, Transport Studies, Latin American Studies, Islamic and Chinese Studies, Archeology and Literature.



### 3.2 The Bookplace, London

The Bookplace is situated in Pecham, London, This is a densely populated urban area with a very large population of immigrants mostly Asiatics and Blacks. The Bookplace opened two years ago as a community bookshop, adult education centre and local publishing project. It was started by a group of people who lived and worked in the area and saw a need for such a project in South London. Initially support came from the Greater London Arts Association, the Inner London Education Authority and Allen Lane Foundation. The Southwark Council provided a derelict shop at a nominal rent.

Three staff members were employed under the government's Job Creation Programme. From the outset the three sides of the project developed together. The Bookplace provides a central focus. It is easily accessible and opens from 10 a.m. to 7 p.m. Soon after the Bookplace opened people began bringing in manuscripts and inquiring about classes. The Bookplace provides an unrivalled range of material for literacy students and the publishing project was able to publish student writing, which was sold in the shop. All the activities are concerned with literacy in one way or another, and the Bookplace provides something for all ages: a creche, a children's reading club,

teenagers' classes, adult classes, a writers' group, a women-and-employment group and the publication of local history written by senior citizens.

The management structure of the Bookplace is as follows: The Pecham Literacy Centre is registered as a charity with an elected management committee. The six full-time members of staff work collectively and are also members of the Management Committee. As the project grew, it was decided to change the management structure so that it could become more user-controlled. Each part of the project has set up a group which holds open meetings to discuss policy and planning. The Management Committee now exists only to make decisions which affect the project as a whole.

Classes at the Bookplace are attended by students at all levels learning together in groups. The majority of classes have more than one tutor. The tutors work as a team. They discuss, plan and prepare work together as far as possible with the students. They also hold planning meetings. The Education Group, consisting of students and tutors, discusses organisation and curricula. Reading and writing is not seen as an abstract activity. In the classes work develops out of discussion. This is true whether the class is

dealing with local or national issues, creative writing, form-filling, letter writing, spelling, or punctuation. Discussion creates a feeling of belonging to a group in which the members, tutors and students help and support one another. The importance of students writing is recognised in nearly all literacy schemes.

The Bookplace has liaison with other literacy schemes. A few years back, Southwark Literacy schemes set up an organisation called the Literacy Development Group which with the help of the Southwark Council, produced an annual directory of all literacy provision in the borough. Regular meetings are held where tutors and other interested people discuss issues which affect them all. This links the different schemes in the area and provides a structure for joint policy and united action. On a more informal level, students and tutors form different schemes, organise together events such as reading evenings, writing weekends and other social activities.

The present writer feels that the Bookplace fulfils a variety of social needs particularly for the deprived and the underprivileged. It seems that literacy programmes in Natal/Kwa Zulu would benefit if certain aspects of the programmes of the Bookplace could be emulated, particularly the

practice of encouraging students to write and publish their writings. Adult tutors in Kwa Zulu would be more effective if they had regular meetings to provide structures for joint policies as in the case in the Bookplace.

### 3.3 The Workers' Educational Association

The Workers' Educational Association is an independent, voluntary, national movement run by its members. It is registered as a charity and grant-aided from national and local government. It was founded in 1903 with the twofold aim, point out Jennings (1979)

"...of stimulating and co-ordinating all working-class efforts of a specifically educational character."  
(p. 1).

It also had to develop a partnership between the working class movement and the universities.

Jennings (op.cit.) cites Searle (1971) who said

"The W.E.A.'s objective is the elevation of the whole body of workers ... not raising people out of their class, but raising them and their class at the same time." (p. 21).

The brochure, "A Member's Guide", points out that "the W.E.A.'s aims are in general to further the advancement of education for all." (p. 1). In particular, the W.E.A. stimulates and satisfies

educational demands for adults so that they may enhance their position. The W.E.A. enables people to equip themselves to play a more confident, informed and active part in the communities in which they live. The pamphlet, W.E.A.'s "What it is, What it does, How it works." points out that "education is not merely a means to personal development but it is also vital to the health of democratic society" (p. 1).

There are more than 900 W.E.A. branches in the United Kingdom, according to the brochure, "A Member's Guide":

"The Branch committee has the responsibility for involving students in the formulation of the class programme, organising and promoting classes and supervising educational work." (p. 2).

Different branches form together in districts. Each district receives grants-in-aid from the Department of Education and Science and the local authorities. Districts derive their income from three main sources: grants from the Department of Education and Science; from the Local Education Authorities; and sometimes grants and other forms of help from universities, and income from student fees.

The W.E.A. have close links with the University extra-mural departments. A significant number of courses organised by W.E.A. branches are in some areas provided by a university, which employs the tutors of the University extra-mural departments. These tutors also provide help and advice to W.E.A. branches.

The brochure "The Early Years of the W.E.A." points out that "The interest of the trade unions in the educational opportunities provided by the W.E.A. built up and many trade unions became affiliated to the W.E.A. (p. 2). The brochure adds that to strengthen and give cohesion to educational work, "The Workers Educational Trade Union Committee was formed in 1919." (p. 2). According to the brochure, this accounts for the close link which presently exists between the W.E.A. and the Trade Union movement. The W.E.A. works closely with local educational authorities, the Universities, Trade Unions, local government agencies and other organisations involved in community service or concerned with social issues.

It is interesting to note that adult education programmes in England and particularly those of the W.E.A., were intended to raise the levels of the working classes and the underprivileged. In Natal Kwa Zulu adult education is also concerned with

raising the levels of the working classes and with providing literacy programmes for workers. In Natal/Kwa Zulu more efforts should be directed to linking adult education and the trade union movements so that workers are enlightened about their rights. The Manpower Commission has done a little in this regard through a series of pamphlets but a more ongoing effort would be useful and could obviate the different forms of exploitation sometimes experienced by illiterate workers.

The W.E.A. courses are open to all adults. Subjects include: sociology, politics, economics, law and philosophy. Topics discussed include individual liberties, citizens' rights, industrial relations, race relations and mental health. The main types of courses are: tutorial courses of 24 meetings; one year or sessional courses of 20 - 24 meetings; terminal courses of 10 - 12 meetings; short courses of 6 - 9 meetings. The majority of these are provided in the evening but an increasing number are organised in the day time, bearing in mind the growing ranks of the unemployed in Britain. Some workers release their workers for day time, weekend or residential courses. The present national President of the W.E.A. is Professor Jennings of the University of Hull, who directed the writer's study programme, and enabled the writer to visit different classes run by the W.E.A.

in Hull, Nottingham and Scotland. These classes ranged from basic adult literacy to industrial relations. The writer also visited the national office in London. It is apparent that the W.E.A. is one of the most influential and internationally noted movements. The conclusion may be reached that the W.E.A. serves a very useful educational purpose for the working classes.

### 3.4 The National Extension College

The National Extension College is in Cambridge. It is a non-profit making body governed by an educational trust. It was established in 1963 to provide high quality home study courses for adults and provides courses for 10 000 students a year. The College runs correspondence courses but in addition to these courses the College also runs many educational projects, provides television-linked courses and publishes educational materials. Any adult can be a student with the National Extension College. No qualifications are required to start a National Extension College course and there are no upper age limits.

The National Extension College has students aged 16 to 80+ and nearly half of them left school aged 16 or less. One-fifth left with no qualifications at all. The National Extension College provides over 70 courses covering a wide range of



subjects. National Extension courses are offered at a variety of levels. There are introductory courses which either start one on a new subject like German for beginners or help one to improve on a standard subject like Word Power or a Basic English course. There are also the G.C.E. "A" level courses which help students prepare for the open university, and various general interest courses. The National Extension College also has Flexi-Study. This is a form of distance learning. The students are based in their own homes where they study specially prepared distance learning texts. Their tutor is based in a local college using the post or telephone. Flexi Study students also come to their local College of Adult Education or College of Further Education from time to time. For tutorials, they use the facilities of the above colleges.

Most National Extension courses can be taken in two ways : by correspondence through N.E.C. or as a local home study course through a local college of adult or further education. The local system is called Flexi Study and is now available at about one hundred colleges. Students who study by Flexi Study work as students of a local college. They follow the same National Extension College course but the course material comes through the local college. What the course consists of varies

from college to college but in general it includes a specially designed correspondence text which the college supplies to the student when the student enrolls and which the student studies at home.

A Flexi Study tutor which the college appoints from one of its lecturing staff, guides the student through the course, marks and comments on assignments. Other facilities made available are library facilities, laboratory work in science, language laboratory work in languages and facilities of setting public examinations such as G.C.E. "O" and "A" levels. Advice and counselling are available to students whatever their course of study.

There are a number of Flexi Study Colleges, the number grows steadily and in March 1981, it had reached one hundred. The essential elements of Flexi Study are a distance learning text which forms the main part of the students' course and written assignments for the student to complete and send to his tutor of the College. Tutorials are held in the local College or appropriate courses have access to science laboratories and language laboratories. The College also offers pre-enrolment counselling to its students. Access is made available on a regular basis to general advice and support by telephone or letter.

The National Extension College seems to be of great help to people who missed out in the school system. In the South African context it seems that the South African Council of Higher Education would be more meaningful if it would take on a few aspects of the National Extension College and apply them to its own situation : for instance, a closer link could be fostered between Sached and some colleges or adult education centre in Natal/Kwa Zulu. Counselling and support to students is also essential, particularly to students studying on a part-time basis as is the case with Sached.

### 3.5 Scottish Adult Education

Reflecting on Adult Education in Scotland over the last fifty years, Dees (1981) says, "It has not changed much." (p. 5). He points out however, that the number of courses concerned with political topics both on a national and on an international level have declined. The reason for this is the increasing provision of radio and television programmes. This has taken away the kind of interest which before people expressed by attendance at university extra-mural classes. Another decline has been in the number of courses that are related to problems of the industrial world, i.e. industrial labour and the role of trade unions. These have been replaced by more

sophisticated courses on management and personal relations in the industrial field.

Positive developments are that in Scotland there has been a considerable growth in the study of subjects that can be considered to have some environmental interest like geology, zoology and ornithology. Interest in these subjects is caused by the conscious use of leisure on the part of the public and also because many of the studies that have developed since the war have quite a local aspect to them, for example local history.

The other development in universities, are with the provision of opportunities for study by adults. In this regard Dees points out that there is a difference between a young and an adult university student and the types of questions they ask. An adult university student is more experienced especially in those subjects with a human content.

Other developmental areas can be observed in the fact that many university extra-mural courses have had to concern themselves with social problems which adult students press upon tutors. These are problems which at times do not fall within the context of a recognised study. Sociology as a study is one of the consequences of development in university extra-mural education where the concern

was on social problems at a time when there was no discipline known as sociology. The University of Glasgow can also claim to have been in the forefront or the initiator of a study of problems of public health and general public welfare. Dees (1981) argues that

"The place of community medicine as a recognised field is partly the consequence of the University of Glasgow's extra-mural concern with problems of public health." (p. 8).

The other concern has been in the interest the University has shown in the education of adults i.e. in the study, purpose and objectives of the education of adults. This means looking at adult education in itself as an academic subject. In this regard adult education has grown from its raw form to an increasingly sophisticated form, because degrees and diplomas are offered in this field.

Particular circumstances in rural Scotland can be related to Kwa Zulu. The pamphlet "Mirror" points out that there was concern on what could be done to help workers in rural Scotland where there are very few adult educators and yet there are many people who need the service. A newsletter was suggested. The newsletter was intended to be used by those employed or doing voluntary work in

community education, evening classes and agricultural advisers. The newsletter would help keep in touch with rural people throughout the country.

Another problem which required attention was rural unemployment. The argument is that rural unemployed people are less likely to appear in statistics. This is caused by old traditions of seasonal and short-term employment and casual employment. However, the central problems of unemployment are the same for urban and the rural persons, i.e. they suffer the same loss of income, self-esteem and social contacts. What is observed is that it helps an unemployed person to talk to somebody who listens and understands. However, there are few counselling services available to the unemployed in rural areas. If rural unemployed people could form support groups, they could collectively pool their experience and thus organise themselves. They could open up possibilities of approaching all sorts of agencies, authorities and companies and seek help. Church halls could be used for meetings and once organised the unemployed could get in touch with different forms of assistance. They could, for instance, explore ways of solving transport difficulties in rural environments by negotiating for sponsored social car schemes, shared motor bikes and community transportation. A variety of self-help

schemes could also be attempted, for example community business ventures and house-based industry. The success of these ventures lies in self-reliance and co-operation.

The pamphlet "Mirror" (1982) points out that Argyll and Bute reflect some of the needs of the population in rural areas. The needs of rural people are different from those of urban populations. Rural communities should try to overcome the sense of isolation that they feel because with modern technology, points out "Mirror", (op.cit.) "Adult education can offer to even the most remote community interesting and exciting opportunities."

### 3.6 The Open University

The Open University was established in 1969. It is now Britain's largest university with over 78 000 students. Its administrative headquarters are at Milton Keynes, North West of London. It has regional offices and study centres throughout Britain. As an important social and educational development, the Open University's significance lies not only in making university education available to adults but also in the variety of teaching methods used. Open University students do not need any formal academic qualifications for admission to university courses. Students are

over twenty one years old and the majority are in full-time employment and living at home. Staff and students do not come together on a campus, instead specially produced teaching materials are sent directly to students' homes throughout the country.

The University's courses are supported by television and radio programmes transmitted nationally by the British Broadcasting Corporation. There are three programmes of study for undergraduate, post-graduate and associate students. Some of the features of the Open University are of sufficient interest to warrant specific description.

### 3.6.1 The System of Study

Students study at home. Each week they read some correspondence material, do assignments, follow broadcasts and read from the setbooks, and complete practical exercises. At the beginning of the course the students receive correspondence material at regular intervals through the post. Each package contains specially written and designed paperback textbooks in large format called Course Units. There are also notes on radio and television broadcasts, assignments and exercises. In some cases, audio-visual



materials such as records, tapes and slides are used.

### 3.6.2 Study Centres

The University has a national network of more than 260 study centres attended by students for tutorials, seminars, discussions and informal meetings. Study centres are based in local colleges or other places of education and are normally open on weekday evenings and on Saturdays. Study centres provide facilities for students to meet one another for discussion and mutual help and for group and individual discussion with tutor counsellors and course tutors.

The Open University also offers tuition and counselling. It employs more than 5 500 part-time course-tutor counsellors who provide local support for students studying on their own. The part-time staff are chosen not only on academic ability but also for personal qualities and for special interest in teaching adults.

During the course of the year students are to complete a number of assignments. There are various kinds of essays and exercises. They are marked either by the tutor or by a

computer. All foundation and other first-year courses include a one week residential summer school. The summer school week at one of the universities provides a chance for valuable contact with many students and tutors. Programmes in the summer school include seminars and tutorials, field, laboratory and library work, projects, performance and lectures. There are also informal discussions and social activities. The Open University has six faculties ; Arts, Educational Studies, Mathematics, Science, Social Sciences and Technology. An institute of Educational Technology has also been set up. The first undergraduate students were admitted in January 1971. More than 40 000 applied and 19 581 were registered. In 1973 there were 30 000 applicants and in 1976 the number rose to 50 000. The booklet, "An Introduction to The Open University" (1981) points out that "Today more than 44 000 students have graduated from the Open University with B.A. degrees." (p. 4.

### 3.6.3 Solving the Difficulties of Distance Learning

Distance learning systems have a common problem in that their students are

isolated and thus find it very difficult to cope with their studies. The present writer interviewed fifty University of South Africa students studying under Sached and the problem of isolation was highlighted. This normally results in a very high failure rate for those students, particularly Black students, who are products of deprived communities and a poor system of education.

The Open University on the other hand has a variety of support programmes for its students. It uses the radio, television, study centres and counselling for its students. No wonder that within a short period it has produced 44 000 graduates. It may have its weaknesses but it seems necessary that some of its features should be emulated in South Africa particularly the use of the radio and television for educational purposes in distance learning. The possibility exists that the University of South Africa and the new Vista University could incorporate some Open University techniques. The United Kingdom has a long history of adult education, with its beginning in the middle ages. At present adult education provisions in Britain are sophisticated and complex, particularly if a comparison is made with South Africa. This

can be observed from just the few different organisations which the present writer has attempted to analyse i.e. the City Lit, the Bookplace, the Workers' Educational Association, the National Extension College and Adult Education in Scotland. Finally, what Stock (1980) calls "the newest and most adult of all British Universities, namely the Open University," (p. 25) has been shown to offer widespread opportunity in terms of adult education.

### 3.7 Concluding Remarks

The study tour undertaken by the writer (an itinerary is provided as an appendix to this chapter), contributed much in terms of increased understanding of the role and nature of adult education. It allowed one to see the situation in Natal/Kwa Zulu in broad perspective, and to appreciate the many hurdles yet to be overcome in designing and implementing an effective adult education system.

## APPENDIX : ITINERARY OF STUDY TOUR UNDERTAKEN

The writer visited Britain from 31st December 1981 to 27th March 1982 as one of a party of four persons on a programme organised by British Council, to whom thanks are due for the financial and other assistance provided. The aims of the programmes were

1. To observe and study the provision for adult education in Great Britain, with particular reference to :
  - (a) Basic literacy courses
  - (b) The organisation and administration of such courses
2. To observe all other provisions for adult education in Britain.

The tour, with principal areas and institutions visited is outlined below, starting from the London area :

- 4th January 1982 At the British Council office in London. Briefing by a British Council official. He lectured on education in England and Wales. The lecture covered
- (i) The Department of Education and Science
  - (ii) The Role of the Central Government
  - (iii) Local Education authorities
  - (iv) Universities
  - (v) Adult and Continuing Education.

- 5th January 1982 The Bookplace in Pacham.
- 6th January 1982 City Lit Adult Education Training Unit.
- 7th January 1982 University of Southampton : Department of Adult Education.
- 8th January 1982 Community Education Southwark Institute
- 10th January 1982 Arrived at the University of Hull for a four-week programme.
- 11th January 1982 Received by the Deputy Director of Adult Education, University of Hull.
- 12th January 1982 Discussion of the Programme with the Director of Adult Education, University of Hull.
- 13th January 1982 Lecture: Problems of Adult Education in the Third World.
- 14th January 1982 Visit to the library, University of Hull
- 15th January 1982 Practical use of library facilities of the University : where to find South African material.
- 18th January 1982 Lecture by Professor Jennings : Problems of Adult Education in Great Britain and Wales.
- 19th January 1982 Lecture: General Problems of education in underdeveloped countries.
- 20th January 1982 Lecture : Evolution of the Theory and Practice of Adult Education in Great Britain.

- 21st January 1982 Lecture: Paulo Friere and Adult Education
- 22nd January 1982 Lecture: Problems and Policies of Adult Education in Great Britain. Areas covered were:
- (i) National and Regional machinery
  - (ii) The L.E.A. non-vocational Sector
  - (iii) The Colleges of Higher Education
  - (iv) Industrial Training
  - (v) The L.E.A. Non-vocational Sector
  - (vi) Adult Basic Education
  - (vii) The Workers' Educational Association
  - (viii) Trade Union education
  - (ix) The Open University
  - (x) Other Agencies of Adult Education
- Visit to the Teachers Centre, Hull.
- 25th January 1982 Education for Self Reliance - The Case of Tanzania. Lecture by two lecturers from the University of Dar-Es-Salaam.
- 28th January 1982 Adult Education Provision in South Africa, Ciskei and Kwa Zulu : Seminar.
- 1st February 1982 Lecture on Administration of Adult Education Centres.
- 2nd February 1982 Visit to Cottingham Institute of Further Education.
- 3rd February 1982 Lecture on Concepts of Power, Authority and Domination.

- 3rd February 1982 Lecture on Post School Education and the Orientation of Adult Tutors.
- 4th February 1982 Visit to the Audio-Visual Centre of the University of Hull.
- 4th February 1982 Visit to the Basic Education Unit - (L.E.A. Hull).
- 5th February 1982 Lecture on Human Relations.
- 8th February 1982 Scotland - Scottish Adult Basic Education: Workers' Educational Association and its Purpose.
- 8th February 1982 Stirling - Adult Education Project - Central Region.
- 9th February 1982 Tollcross - Writers' Workshop.
- 10th February 1982 Adult Education Project - Edinburgh  
Lecture : How the ideas of Paulo Friere can be applied.
- 10th February 1982 In the evening a visit to Riddles Court headquarters of the W.E.A. in Scotland.
- 11th February 1982 Wester Hailes Community Centre for Deprived Communities.
- 12th February 1982 Attended Workers' Educational Association course for the unemployed in Riddles Court.
- 19th February 1982 Professor Jennings in Hull - Lecture on Adult Education in European countries e.g. Russia, Norway, Scandinavia and the Netherlands.



22nd February 1982 University of Nottingham met the  
Head of the Department with staff  
members.

23rd February 1982 Tuition on Teaching Adults.

23rd February 1982 Adult Basic Literacy Unit - Nottingham

24th February 1982 Workers' Educational Association  
Class : "Be your own Boss"

25th February 1982 Visit to the University Adult Educa-  
tion Centre, Shakespeare Street,  
Nottingham.

3rd March 1982 Workers' Educational Association  
Literacy classes in Leicester.

4th March 1982 Visit to the National Institute of  
Adult Education and a lecture by  
Mr. A. Stock - Director.

5th March 1982 Administration and organisation  
Nottinghamshire and Leicestershire.

8th March 1982 Visit to the National Extension  
College, Cambridge.

9th March 1982 Met Professor Jennings at W.E.A.  
office in London.

14th March 1982 Visit to Ruskin College, Oxford.

15th March 1982 Visit to the University of London.  
Department of extra-mural studies and  
a discussion of the W.E.A. in London.

22nd March      1982    A lecture by an official of the Open  
University on how the Open University  
operates.

27th March      1982    Left for South Africa.

## CHAPTER 6 : CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The writer will now draw attention to general conclusions which have arisen from the study, which set out to investigate adult education in Natal/Kwa Zulu, with particular reference to opportunities for Teachers.

Throughout the study an attempt has been made to highlight the fact that education for Blacks is characterised by widespread illiteracy and tremendous backlogs. The system has generally poor facilities as well as large numbers of unqualified and underqualified teachers. There is also a high pupil drop-out rate in schools. Dhlomo (1979) notes that "any educational system is as good as the teachers who serve it." (p. 1). Poorly qualified teachers in Kwa Zulu will naturally produce students with a poor education.

Interest in this study arose from the fact that the present writer is himself involved in adult education through visits to adult centres in Kwa Zulu.

## CONCLUSIONS

### 1. EDUCATION AS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION

Chapter one revealed that education is a social institution and is usually provided by schools. This is particularly the case in Western society where there is popular education. Education is generally regarded as something for children and young people. This is the common assumption made by educators, decision makers and the general public.

This study argues a contrary view. It argues that education is for people and for everyone. Luthuli echoes these sentiments and notes that education is not only for children, but for society. The purpose for this study was to analyse education in its broadest sense which encompasses continuing, recurrent and lifelong education. Education must be seen as part of each person's total life experiences. It should not be confined to traditional institutions and patterns. The conclusion reached is that education goes beyond the school and it should cover the whole period of adult life as well.

### 2. AIMS AND OBJECTS OF EDUCATION

Each country has its own special problems as well as its own special goals in education. Approaches in trying to reach these goals may however differ. In South Africa there are certain underlying principles which govern the aims of education. One of these is that the religious

aspect is observed by all but one department of education and Christianity is a norm.

Nationhood is also observed and education has a broad national character. School attendance for Whites, Indians and Coloureds is free and compulsory. This is not the case with Blacks. In Kwa Zulu the Inkatha syllabus sets out the aims and objects of education in the region. Central to Inkatha's objectives, it seems, is the task of nation-building and the creation of national unity.

It may thus be concluded that education is never neutral but it aims to achieve certain goals and objectives in respect of the one being educated, such goals and objectives often being defined by agencies beyond the institution of education.

### 3. THE BANTU EDUCATION ACT NO. 47 OF 1953 AND THE LOWERING OF STANDARDS IN BLACK SCHOOLS

The following results of this Act were observed. Education became centralised, with tremendous powers vested in the Minister. The homeland policy came into effect and the quality of teaching was lowered as better qualified teachers left the system. Horrell (1968) cites Sneesby who writes :

"For many years past there has been a steady decline in the standard of English in Bantu schools." (p. 61).

out that "Verwoerd argued that education for Blacks had to be carefully co-ordinated." (p. 66). They further declare that under Verwoerd's ministry.

"The government established a policy to be used to determine the number of Blacks to be educated for semi-skilled or professional jobs and the number to be left uneducated for manual work." (idem).

The conclusion may be reached that the present shortage of Black skilled and professional personnel in Black society is partly a direct result of the limitations of Bantu education.

#### 5. INCOMPLETE EDUCATION : PUPIL DROP-OUT RATE AND GENERAL ILLITERACY

The backlogs resulted in various forms of incomplete education for Blacks such as double sessions (a system which involves the same teacher teaching two classes in the morning and afternoon in the same classroom). The platoon system consists of two classes, each with its own teacher using one classroom in two sessions. There was usually a high pupil drop-out rate as demonstrated by Troupe (1977 p. 66).

The drop-out rate in African schools is typically illustrated by the progress through school of the 1962 intake.

The following factors probably contributed to the decline in the standard of English in African schools. The 1956 syllabus for Lower Primary classes provided that instruction should be given through the medium of the mother tongue, both English and Afrikaans being taught as subjects. In the 1956 syllabus for Higher Primary classes, again teaching was to be through the medium of the mother tongue starting from Standard Three in 1956. When these students reached Standard Six, half the subjects that had been taught through an African language had to be taught through the medium of English and the other half through the medium of Afrikaans. The demands on teachers and pupils were clearly tremendous. Inadequate financing of African education was another factor as more money was spent on white education than that for Blacks.

It may be argued therefore, that there was a general decline in academic standards due to unreasonable language requirements and inadequate financing of African education.

#### 4. TREMENDOUS BACKLOGS IN EDUCATION FOR BLACKS

The Bantu Education Act, No. 47 of 1953, brought about tremendous backlogs in the educational provision for Blacks. There were backlogs in school buildings, schools became overcrowded, pupil-teacher ratios rose and the schools had large numbers of unqualified and underqualified teachers. Mugomba and Nyaggah point

TABLE 16 : PROGRESS OF 1962 COHORT

YEAR	STANDARD OR FORM	NO. OF PUPILS ENROLLED	PERCENTAGE REMAINING
1962	Sub A	426 827	100%
1963	Sub B	324 024	75%
1964	1	288 911	67,68
1965	2 Lower Primary	288 480	53,52
1966	3	188 333	44,12
1967	4	144 252	33,79
1968	5	121 171	28,38
1969	6 Higher Primary	119 704	28,04
1970	I	49 504	11,59
1971	II	42 509	9,95
1972	III	32 074	7,51
1973	IV	11 344	2.65
1974	V Secondary School	6 732	1,57

Source: Department of Bantu Education Annual Report (1974) pp. 130 -131).

The conclusion reached from the above table is that out of 426 827 children who entered school in 1962 only 6 732 reached matriculation standard in 1974, i.e. 1,5% of the original cohort group.

The H.S.R.C. Report (1981) declares that percentages of pupils who started school in 1963, and who then completed twelve years of schooling, were as follows for Whites, Indians, Coloureds and Blacks respectively: 58, 40; 22, 30; 4, 40; 1, 96. This shows the tremendous loss of potential high-level manpower from the Coloured and Black population groups in particular.



The Draft Urban Foundation Report (1982) :  
Design Study for the Provision of Non-Formal Education  
in South Africa, comments on the number of pupils that  
 emerged from the Black education system at different  
 levels in South Africa in 1981 (estimated by a team  
 from the University of the Orange Free State's Research  
 Unit for Education System Planning):

"In 1981, 336 315 children left school  
 having passed at most standard 2, that  
 is not classifiable as literate .....  
 This makes up 54% of Black children  
 leaving school in 1981 and includes  
 approximately 103 thousand children in  
 the Transkei, 92 500 in White South  
 Africa and 60 000 in Kwa Zulu." (p. 51).

Assuming that 1981 is representative of recent  
 years, it may be concluded that the numbers of Black  
 children who leave school before becoming literate are  
 far greater than the number that leave school having  
 achieved literacy. This shows an obvious demand for  
 adult education to alleviate the problem. It may also  
 be pointed out that this high level of incomplete educa-  
 tion is a result of the Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 19

The present writer would like to argue that not  
 all children in Black society enter the school system.  
 This is true both in urban and rural areas and is particu-  
 larly the case in rural environments. The number of  
 illiterates among children out of school has not been  
 established in this study.

## 6. THE NEED FOR NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

In Chapter 2 the present writer examined the early beginnings of adult education in Britain. One of the reasons why adult education came into being in Britain was that large numbers of children did not have access to formal schooling in the early 1800's. The introduction of formal schooling in developing countries was also analysed.

Heavy reliance on formal education by developing countries as a means of solving social, economic and political problems was highlighted. The inadequacies of formal education resulted in a shift to a combination of formal and non-formal education by these countries. In South Africa, educationists have also realised that education, if it has to be meaningful, should try to achieve a positive relationship between the formal, non-formal and informal aspects. This should occur in the school, society and the family. The H.S.R.C. Report (198 has stressed the need for non-formal education.

## 7. EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL AWARENESS/SOCIAL CHANGE

The observation that formal schooling alone cannot solve social problems necessitated on examination of non-formal provisions for adult education in Natal/Kwa Zulu in Chapter Three. The Valley Trust, for example, provides non-formal education for rural development. Programmes in the Valley Trust attempt to enable rural people to develop skills and acquire knowledge so as to

live more useful lives in rural environments.

Inkatha, Diakonia and the Valley Trust seem to have one central purpose. Their programmes are aimed at transforming attitudes and changing the learners from passive recipients to actors in their own situation. The programmes are educational in purpose and are concerned with the development of social awareness.

In Britain there are many forms of non-formal education such as the Workers' Educational Association, The City Lit, the National Extension College and the Open University, some of which were described in Chapter

#### 8. THE NEED FOR INSERVICE TRAINING AND TEACHER UPGRADING PROGRAMMES

In Kwa Zulu there is a large number of unqualified and underqualified teachers. This necessitates accelerated inservice teacher training and more provision for continuing and further education for teachers. In this work it was observed that Kwa Zulu has very limited facilities for inservice teacher training. There are no facilities for teacher upgrading and yet many Black teachers need upgrading. Present demands and changing society necessitate constant upgrading for teachers.

Chapter Four also examined the role of Teachers' societies and professional organisations in teachers' professional development. The conclusion reached was

that teachers' societies in Natal/Kwa Zulu and particularly the Natal Teachers' Society and the Teachers' Association of South Africa have active subject associations. The Natal African Teachers' Union has not specifically developed in this regard although it offers other services to education which are supremely important.

It was also observed that teachers' professional organisations are not only involved in professional development, but they also contribute to social action - for example white teachers established the Teacher Assistance Programme for Black Teachers in Pietermaritzburg. The Teachers' Association of South Africa contributed towards building schools for children and in the Natal African Teachers Union, it is the teachers who are responsible for collecting money from parents towards building school, organising sporting activities and promoting general social upliftment.

In Chapter Five, a review of the writer's visit to Britain and some provisions for adult education in the United Kingdom were analysed. In this chapter the writer analysed the organisation of adult education in Britain and some interesting agencies were examined. The writer observed that adult education in Britain is much more sophisticated than in South Africa. It is complex and pluralistic with many diverse programmes which are intended to meet the needs of a developed and advanced society. The conclusion is that in South

Africa the organisation and administration of adult education has a long way to go and at present lacks the infrastructure available in Britain.

#### 9. THE PROBLEM OF ILLITERACY

The magnitude of the problem of illiteracy in Natal, Kwa Zulu and in South Africa as a whole can be discerned from The Draft Urban Foundation Report (1982) : Design Study for the Provision of Non-Formal Education in South Africa.

According to unpublished preliminary statistics derived from the 1980 census,

"39,45% of all South Africans are illiterate - 47,50% of males and 50,43 of females." (p. 51)

The census figures exclude the independent states. The Urban Foundation Report (op.cit.) further points out that "In 1980 there were an estimated 5 678 000 illiterate in South Africa." (idem), in this case including Bophuthatswana, Ciskei, Transkei and Venda. It further adds that

"Of south Africa's 10,8 million economically active people, 30% have had no schooling." (p. 51).

The conclusion, that illiteracy rates present a problem requiring immediate remediation, is obvious. Yet those attempts which do exist to combat illiteracy are not always suitable.

#### 10. LITERACY PROGRAMMES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Certain literacy programmes in Natal/Kwa Zulu are essentially intended to allow illiterates to master the basic techniques of reading and writing. In addition, they seem to have as an aim, evangelization in that they appear to stress the value of Christianity. The Handbook, Literacy Evangelism (1968) reads "Illiteracy, hungry people cannot understand theological discussion." (p. 1). The book further points out that

"They want to know who can help their  
bodies and minds and souls out of hell,  
the hell they are in right now on earth."

This suggests that adult learners should be encouraged to read the scriptures on their own. The main stress is on ability to read the scriptures as if this were the goal of literacy. This has led young enlightened Africans to regard religion and Christianity as irrelevant, and at times youth have shown rejection of the Bible completely.

In South Africa the demand for literacy emerges from the fact that an illiterate person is less productive and as such literacy programmes supported by employers tend to centre around the capitalist incentive in that investment in literacy programmes for workers is justified in terms of their consequently increased usefulness.

Genuine literacy programmes should, on the other hand, have the far-reaching implications envisaged by Paulo Freire. Mackie (1980) cites Freire whose essential contribution to literacy "highlights the connections between language, politics and consciousness." (p. 2). According to Mackie (op.cit.) Freire asserts "that the task of literacy is humanization." (p. 2). Freire's discussion of literacy and education has as one of its principal concerns, "the promotion of revolutionary social change." (idem).

The present writer would regard as a revolutionary social change, a radical reform of all literacy programme to conform with Freire's objectives. According to Mackie (op.cit.) Freire "unites action with reflection." (p. 2). To Freire, "Literacy and education come to be seen as fully political constructs." (p. 3).

The cover page of Freire (1972) reads "In Paulo Freire's hands literacy is a weapon for social change.". He concludes that "Education .. becomes the means by which men can perceive, interpret, criticise and finally transform the world about them." (idem). This aspect is completely lacking in South African literacy programmes. Literacy programmes in South Africa are far short of the conscientization which seems to be central to others. Literacy campaigns could usefully be aimed at development and development in its broadest sense, of social and political awareness making the neo-literates reflect



critically on their situation. Most South African literacy programmes are geared towards producing a docile literate population, always subservient to authority, and seem to be directed towards the accumulation of wealth and capitalism on the part of employers.

Another important aim of literacy is surely to enable adult learners to gain higher levels of employment, and as a result to improve the quality of their lives. One of the particular concerns of the H.S.R.C. Investigation into Education (1981) reads

"Continuing attention to literacy is recommended as one of the functions of the proposed South African Council for Education." (p. 152).

One may conclude that literacy programmes are valuable in some ways but motives need examination. In order to obviate some of the problems, programmes should be in the hands of people with educational knowledge. The H.S.R.C. investigation into Education (op.cit.) points out that "This function would best be performed by a specialist committee." (p. 153), and adds that "This body should be representative of all recognised institutions concerned with the promotion of literacy.".

The content of what the illiterates are taught needs to stress reading and writing as well as citizenship and human rights. To Freire (1970) "Illiteracy is concerned of as a poison herb, intoxicating and debilitating person



who cannot read and write." (p. 23). Freire, therefore, advocates the complete eradication of illiteracy.

There is need for a national or provincial literacy programme independent of the government and comprising of experts on literacy. Lowe, Grant and Williams (1971) argue that

"In societies where the great majority of the population has had little or no formal education there is a pool of underutilised intelligence only awaiting to be activated by the appropriate stimuli." (p 148).

#### 11. EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

Education i.e. formal schooling in itself, argues Vos (1981), "is unable to bring about desired change for broad national development." (p. 5). It seems that formal schooling in developing countries should function and interact with non-formal education in order to contribute to national development. In Natal/Kwa Zulu it seems that there should be harmonization and a closer relationship between formal and non-formal education.

Non-formal education may be geared towards a variety of adult education programmes for people who comprise the out-of-school population.

## 12. THE NATURE OF ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education should surely be considered as a continuing education provision rather than a remedial exercise. It is suggested that the elementary educational system should become more efficient so as to avoid wastage. Thus, free and compulsory education for Blacks in South Africa should be introduced as a duty of the state.

In South Africa the adult education centres administered by government agencies were established to meet the needs of large numbers of private candidates and illiterates, both those who left school early and those who never had the chance of going to school formally. The aim was to solve the problems caused by an inadequate school system. If free and compulsory education were introduced for all population groups the problem of illiterate adults would after a time be minimized. Such action would be an attempt to avoid waste of human potential, particularly in the Black sector, and would allow for a redefinition of the role of adult education.

## 13. STAFFING REQUIREMENTS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Five area principals have recently been appointed in Kwa Zulu. These area principals need to be fully-trained adult educators with expertise in literacy, post literacy and community development, methodology and basic administration skills. The area principal should be a facilitator in such areas as:

1. Recruiting part-time teachers;
2. Recruiting individual and voluntary teachers;
3. Co-ordinating action with other public and private agencies;
4. Providing facilities, material and resources for training part-time and voluntary tutors.

A full-time adult educator should, it seems, be fully trained in his field with experience in literacy, post literacy and curriculum development. There is need even for part-time tutors to receive some training in the teaching of adults so as to acquaint them with the psychology of working with adults.

If funds or sponsors are available, it would even be a wise step to send some adult educators overseas to enable them to observe adult education in its comprehensive form in developed countries. These arrangements would allow the service to have some specialists and qualified staff which are seriously lacking at present.

On the basis of the conclusions noted, the following policy recommendations are suggested.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

### 1. NEED FOR CO-ORDINATION ✓

There is need to co-ordinate the present services of adult education with other areas of the education service, for instance those offered by Teacher Training Colleges and Universities. Teacher Training Colleges and Universities should provide courses on adult education for student teachers such as those offered at the Universities of Nottingham and Hull. This would allow the teaching profession to serve not only the school system but also the adult education service.

Black teachers in particular should be aware that they have the responsibility of teaching the young and also the millions of illiterate adults who either did not have the chance of going to school or dropped out on the way.

### 2. THE NEED FOR JOINT ACTION BY DIFFERENT BODIES

The provision for adult education needs the participation of all sectors of the community so as to make it a reality. Agencies like Diakonia, The Valley Trust, Inkatha, The South African Council for Higher Education and the Urban Foundation should be encouraged to stimulate interest at local and national level. This co-ordination would result in an effective functioning of the service.

At government level, Lowe et al (1971) note that

"Co-operation between ministries - Health, Social Services, Education, Community Development, Agriculture, Information and between all government agencies has been found to be necessary." (p. 153)

This kind of co-ordination establishes harmonization of services. It also forestalls competition and duplication of services.

A co-ordinating national body such as The National Institute of Adult Education (England and Wales) and the Scottish Institute of Adult Education seem to be necessary in South Africa. These bodies act as centres of information about adult education, and exist to serve their members i.e. the statutory and voluntary organisations providing adult education. The National Institutes attempt to improve public understanding of their purpose and activities, they undertake enquiries and also publish professional literature. The National Institutes facilitate international contact, they are independent bodies financed by their members and supported by government grants. The introduction of such bodies would help in South Africa.

### 3. COMMUNICATION PROBLEMS AND THE NEED TO TEACH THE BASIC LANGUAGE SKILLS

Mastery of language, argues Soni (1981) "is the major pre-requisite for academic achievement." (p. 244). A

student who is lacking in basic language skills has problems in communication. This was observed in the Teacher Assistance programme in Pietermaritzburg.

Poor performance in English by students in the adult education centres may be attributed to the effects of mother tongue instruction throughout the primary school during the "Bantu Education" period. At secondary level half the subjects were taught in English and the other half in Afrikaans. Apart from the fact that Black students are products of culturally deprived home environments, the language issue in the school system has compounded the problem and has resulted in serious communication problems.

In an attempt to solve the problem various types of bridging courses should be applied like the course on communication now envisaged by the Teacher Assistance programme. In the Sunday Tribune, November 14, 1982 9p. 32) Ingrid Steward cites the founding of Academic Support Programmes in English Language universities in order to assist disadvantaged Black students who enrol at these universities. Some of these include a course in English language skills for those students whose mother tongue is not English. The Report of the Department of Education and Science : A Strategy For the Basic Education of Adults declares

"The overall ability to make oneself understood and to understand the communications of others is necessary for competent functioning." (p. 14).

Communication skills are therefore essential both for academic purposes and for competent functioning in society.

#### 4. LEGISLATION ON ADULT EDUCATION

In South Africa adult education has not received serious consideration in a national policy context. Education acts in South Africa make no mention of adult education. Article 5 of the Education and Training Act, No. 90 of 1979, in passing does point out that

"The Minister may out of the moneys appropriated by Parliament .. erect and maintain centres for adult education."

Developed countries have taken a serious view of adult education. In Chapter Two the present writer pointed out that the 1944 Education Act (England and Wales) laid down specifically the areas to be covered by the adult education service. In Scotland the Statutory Framework for Adult and Further Education is incorporated in the Education (Scotland) Acts of 1962 and 1969 and the Further Education (Scotland) Act 1969. The Act is cited in the publication The Right to Learn : A Statement on Adult Education (p. 5). It reads :



"It shall be the duty of each education authority to secure that there shall be made for their area adequate and efficient provision of school and further education ... Under the Education Acts further education includes both vocational education and social, cultural and recreative activities either as part of a course of instruction or as organised voluntary leisure time occupation." (p. 3).

It seems therefore, that in South Africa there is need for legislation for adult education if our system of education is to be in line with modern trends.

#### 5. ASSISTANCE FROM EMPLOYERS

Employers should be of assistance to the thousands of illiterates, particularly Blacks in enabling them to master basic education. Programmes should incorporate inservice courses which involve the skills of workers. This would improve and raise the efficiency level of the workers.

Apart from inservice courses which provide for upward job mobility, some programmes in industry should be aimed at the intellectual stimulation of working class people. Reference in this regard may be made to the Workers' Educational Association. This association was founded in 1903 as an association to promote the Higher Education of Working Men. Jennings (1979) writes that it had the twofold aim



"Of stimulating and co-ordinating all working class efforts of a specifically educational character and of developing a partnership between the working class movement and universities." (p. 1).

The above reaffirms the need for the intellectual stimulation of the worker over and above basic and work-related education.

#### 6. NEED FOR BODIES SUCH AS THE W.E.A.

The Draft Urban Foundation Report (1982) argues that "of South Africa's 10,8 million economically active people, 30% have had no schooling." (p. 51). Illiterate people are easy targets to all forms of manipulation, abuse and exploitation. The present writer feels that it is the moral duty of the state and the private sector to see to the uplifting of these people. In 1980, points out the Urban Foundations Report (op.cit.)

"Approximately 1 million of the potentially economically active group aged between 17 and 26 years, had at best an educational level of standard 2 - that is four years of school." (p. 51).

One immediately sees the need for a body such as the Workers' Educational Association in Natal/Kwa Zulu and South Africa. Such a body would form a link with the Trade union movement as well as the adult education service and universities. Linkage by the workers with such bodies would expose them to all forms of educationa

enlightenment so that they are made aware of their industrial, political and civic rights. Peers (1958 p. 338) cited by Brown 1980, says education for workers enabled them "to exercise intelligently the newly acquired rights of democratic citizenship."

## 7. RESOURCES

### 7.1 People

It seems necessary to harness the active support of the educated elite and conscientize it on the need for its contribution to the adult education service. In developing countries those who have had the fortune to acquire education should be persuaded to have some sense of service and responsibility for educating others less privileged than themselves. Up to a point declares Lowe et al (1972) "This aim has been achieved in Tanzania." (p. 153).

Nyerere of Tanzania argues that the few who have had the opportunity of receiving education have an obligation to the bulk of illiterate people in the country. In Natal/Kwa Zulu the few educated Blacks should likewise be of service to the illiterates.

### 7.2 Buildings

The most efficient way of providing a comprehensive and socially purposeful education service in a developing country, notes Lowe et al (op.cit.)

"is to regard the school as the focus of community interest." (p. 156). Combining facilities for children, young people and adults in the same building ensures the economical use of scarce resources. In this way the school is turned into a multi-purpose community centre. Such an arrangement could be paralleled to community colleges in Britain which combine a school (usually a secondary school), the youth service and adult education provision.

### 7.3 Finance

While it is true that formal schooling receive a larger portion of available financial resources, it is necessary that adult education should receive a fixed and reasonable percentage of the education budget.

Zambia is quoted by Lowe et al (op.cit.) as spending largish sums of money on adult education.' (p. 154). In Natal/Kwa Zulu problems of adult education seem to centre mainly around a poorly financed system. The service cannot work effectively unless it is reasonably financed.

## 8. THE NEED FOR CURRICULUM INNOVATION AND SPECIALISTS IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Adults in the education centres use material intended for school children, yet adults have needs which are

usually different from those of children. In order to meet adult needs, special curricula should be designed. In a number of cases overseas, curricula for adults are negotiated in the sense that a group of people may require a special course to be designed for them (for instance unemployed school leavers or women requiring a course on health and nutrition).

Besides, adult education is such that it should be able to meet the everchanging needs of society. This makes it obvious that if the adult education service is to make an effective contribution in Natal/Kwa Zulu, Kwa Zulu should have specialist personnel trained in curriculum development. This it seems is an urgent need.

#### 9. AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES

Most parts of Natal/Kwa Zulu are still rural and underdeveloped. Farmer training and agricultural extension services would be of help to the rural populations. Curle (1963) notes that "the most important single measure is land reform." (p. 103). He adds that the next step is "education". This would imply the training of professional personnel for agriculture. These trained people would be of use to Black farmers. In some parts of the country there is fertile arable land which is not sufficiently exploited. Better agricultural methods would lead to a better quality of life for rural populations and this would lead to

the cultivation of cash crops. This would result in a reasonably high degree of self reliance for rural populations rather than their members always being attracted to cities.

#### 10. COMPENSATORY PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

This study has indicated that there is a high pupil drop-out rate in Black schools. This may be attributed to many factors such as the educationally unstimulating home environments in Black communities. Parents are themselves either illiterate or semi-literate and as such the home is not stimulating.

When Black children go to school, they are exposed to a completely new environment. Lehobye (1978) argues that

"To forestall the learning problems that await the child on entering formal schools ... preschools should be introduced." (p. 75).

Repeated failure at school a high drop-out rate and other social and educational problems would be solved by pre-school education. The pre-school would provide compensatory education particularly to the disadvantaged child.

The H.S.R.C. Report (1981) echoes the above sentiments on pre-Basic Education and reads:

"On the basis of experience school readiness is a precondition for a successful school career, particularly during basic education, and environmental deprivation is the major cause of school readiness not being achieved in time." (p. 105).

It seems necessary that co-ordination between the different levels of education should occur. This should be from Pre-Basic Education, the various levels of formal schooling and adult education in its many facets. This co-ordination would provide Natal/Kwa Zulu and South Africa as a whole with a comprehensive system of education and would benefit the lifelong educational needs of society and the country as a whole.

#### 11. NEED FOR NON-QUALIFICATION EXTENSION COURSES

Education in South Africa is too much examination-centred, culminating in the acquisition of paper certificates. This makes people lose sight of the fact that education may be pursued for its own sake and for personal development, for no qualifications at all. On a small scale, this is done at the Valley Trust. The British system of adult education is geared towards vocational and non-vocational education. Vocational courses are, in general, those which lead to examinations. Non-vocational courses on the other hand may cover the domestic arts like cookery and dressmaking, the creative arts like painting and pottery. They may be related to physical skills, leisure time enjoyment and also intellectual and cognitive skills like language courses.

## 12. SUPPORT SERVICES AND ADDITIONAL FACILITIES

Students with necessary entrance qualifications should be admitted to teacher training colleges without discrimination. This should be coupled with bridging courses for disadvantaged students. More money will however have to be spent on these support programmes but an invaluable service would in this way be rendered to deprived Black students and to the education for Blacks. It is recommended that multi-media methods, counselling and support services should be introduced. The publication The Right to Learn (op.cit.) points out that

"These methods have helped to stimulate new approaches to relevant learner-centred education." (p. 5).

It is the view of the present writer that these methods should be applied without lowering academic standards.

In addition, a College of Education For Further Training is an urgent need in Kwa Zulu. This college would be able to generate in-service programmes for teachers and these programmes would be an attempt to meet the diverse needs of the education for Blacks particularly in terms of the bulk of unqualified and underqualified teachers who serve in the Kwa Zulu Department of Education and Culture.



### 13 THE ROLE OF THE ORGANISED PROFESSION

It seems that the Natal African Teachers' Union or other teachers' organisations should provide Teachers' Centres for members. A Teachers' centre would provide a venue where teachers could look into all areas of their professional development. Sponsorships for such centres could possibly be sought from the private sector.

In Kwa Zulu, the formation of subject associations would help teachers in being proficient in their work. The introduction of a few subject inspectors or subject advisors who in turn would be instrumental in the establishment of subject associations would be ideal. The general low qualifications of Black teachers, it seems, does contribute to the difficulty of establishing subject associations. A subject advisor may help teachers in the various regions in Kwa Zulu in particular subject

It is recommended that the Natal African Teachers' Union should strive to cultivate a closer professional link with sister organisations like the Natal Teachers' Society and the Teachers' Association of South Africa. This could be in the sharing of expertise in a variety of academic and professional activities for instance subject associations. The progress towards professional links, for example through the Joint Council of Teachers' Associations, is noted.



Whatever the limitations of the present study, it is hoped that it has in some way highlighted the problem of adult education in Kwa Zulu, and that it has pointed to the directions in which development could occur.

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